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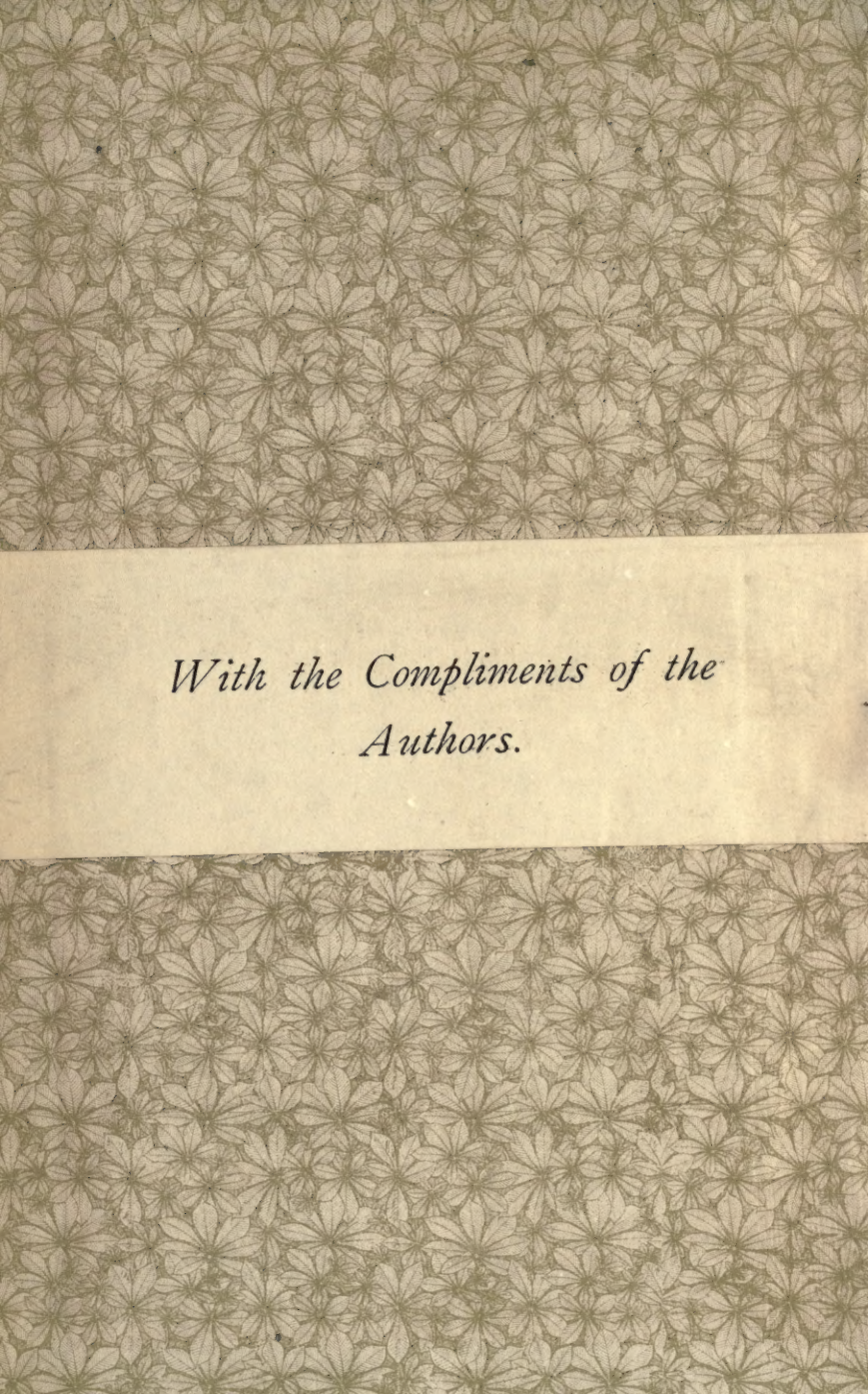
PAST AND PRESENT



GREAT
BRITAIN
IN
EUROPE



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*With the Compliments of the
Authors.*



OUR EMPIRE

PAST AND PRESENT

[vol. 1]

BY

THE EARL OF MEATH

M. H. CORNWALL LEGH, LL.A.

AND

EDITH JACKSON

WITH PORTRAITS, ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS

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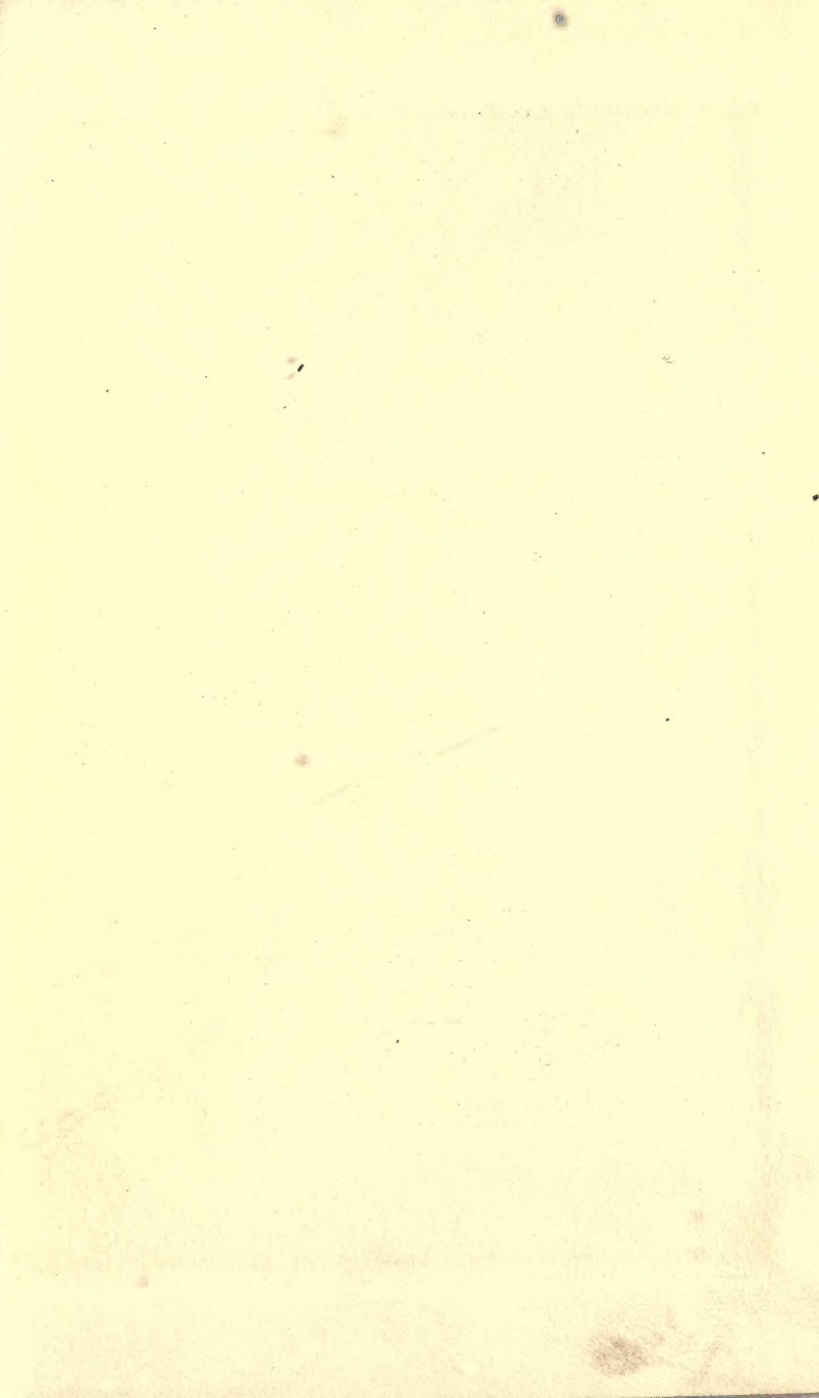
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HARRISON AND SONS,
PRINTERS IN ORDINARY TO HER LATE MAJESTY,
ST. MARTIN'S LANE, W.C.

Reverently Dedicated
TO
THE UNDYING MEMORY
OF
VICTORIA THE GOOD,
THE BELOVED OF HER PEOPLE,
*LATE QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND,
EMPRESS OF INDIA.*





Printed in London.



By permission of Her Majesty the Queen.
Victoria, R. I.





“Her Court was pure, her life serene ;
God gave her peace, her land reposed,
A thousand claims to reverence closed
In her as Mother, Wife, and Queen.

“And statesmen at her council met
Who knew the seasons when to take
Occasion by the hand, and make
The bounds of freedom wider yet,

“By shaping some august decree,
Which kept her throne unshaken still,
Broad-based upon her people’s will,
And compass’d by the inviolate sea.”

TENNYSON.

OUR EMPIRE.

*The work will be issued with Maps and Illustrations
in five separate volumes, each complete in itself
as follows :—*

VOL. I.

GREAT BRITAIN IN EUROPE.

CONTENTS :—A Short Record of Imperial Progress. Growth of Freedom and Good Government at Home. Growth of Sea-power. The making of Great Britain. Union with Wales. Union with Scotland. Union with Ireland. The Small Islands around Great Britain—Isle of Man and the Channel Islands. Great Britain in the Mediterranean—Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus.

VOL. II.

GREAT BRITAIN IN ASIA.

CONTENTS :—India. Ceylon. Eastern Archipelago—Straits Settlements, Malay States, British North Borneo and Protectorates, Sarawak, Labuan. In the China Sea—Hong Kong and Wei-hai-wei, etc. In the Arabian Sea—Aden, Perim, etc. In the Indian Ocean—Mauritius, Seychelles, etc.

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GREAT BRITAIN IN AFRICA.

CONTENTS :—British South Africa. British Central Africa. British East Africa. British West Africa—Gambia, Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, Lagos, Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria. Egypt. St. Helena. Ascension, etc.

VOL. IV.

GREAT BRITAIN IN AMERICA.

CONTENTS :—British North America — the Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland. Bermuda. British West Indies. British Central America — British Honduras. British South America—British Guiana. Falkland Islands, and South Georgia Islands.

VOL. V.

GREAT BRITAIN IN AUSTRALASIA.

CONTENTS :—New South Wales. Victoria. Tasmania. South Australia. Western Australia. Queensland. New Zealand. British New Guinea. Fiji. Cook's Islands. Summary. Development of Imperial Defence. Former Possessions of Great Britain.

The Flag of Britain.

Words by E. A. WALKER.

Music by S. J. REILLY.

Allegretto.

f

Flag of Bri-tain proudly waving O-ver ma - ny dis-tant seas,

This system of musical notation is for the first system of the song. It features a treble and bass staff joined by a brace on the left. The key signature is three sharps (F#, C#, G#) and the time signature is common time (C). The melody is written in the treble staff, starting with a forte (*f*) dynamic. The lyrics are written below the staff.

Flag of Bri-tain boldly brav-ing Blinding fog and adverse breeze,

This system of musical notation is for the second system of the song. It continues the melody and accompaniment from the first system. The lyrics are written below the staff.

mf *rall.*

We sa-lute thee, and we pray God to bless our land to-day.

This system of musical notation is for the third system of the song. It begins with a mezzo-forte (*mf*) dynamic and a *rall.* (rallentando) marking. The melody is written in the treble staff, and the lyrics are written below the staff.

f

Flag of Bri-tain ! wheresoe - ver Thy bright colours are out-spread,

This system of musical notation is for the fourth system of the song. It begins with a forte (*f*) dynamic. The melody is written in the treble staff, and the lyrics are written below the staff.

THE FLAG OF BRITAIN.

Sla-ve-ry must cease for ev - er, Light and freedom reign instead.

The first system of musical notation for 'The Flag of Britain'. It consists of a grand staff with a treble and bass clef. The key signature has two sharps (F# and C#). The melody is in the treble clef, and the accompaniment is in the bass clef. The lyrics are 'Sla-ve-ry must cease for ev - er, Light and freedom reign instead.'

mf *rall.*
We sa - lute thee, and we pray God to bless our land to - day.

The second system of musical notation. It begins with a mezzo-forte (*mf*) dynamic and a 'rallentando' (*rall.*) tempo marking. The melody continues in the treble clef, and the accompaniment continues in the bass clef. The lyrics are 'We sa - lute thee, and we pray God to bless our land to - day.'

mf
Flag of Bri-tain ! 'mid the na-tions May it ev - er speak of peace,

The third system of musical notation. It begins with a mezzo-forte (*mf*) dynamic. The melody continues in the treble clef, and the accompaniment continues in the bass clef. The lyrics are 'Flag of Bri-tain ! 'mid the na-tions May it ev - er speak of peace,'.

And pro-claim, to farthest stations, All un - worthy strife must cease.

The fourth system of musical notation. The melody continues in the treble clef, and the accompaniment continues in the bass clef. The lyrics are 'And pro-claim, to farthest stations, All un - worthy strife must cease.'

rall.
We sa - lute it, and we pray God to bless our land to - day.

The fifth system of musical notation. It begins with a 'rallentando' (*rall.*) tempo marking. The melody continues in the treble clef, and the accompaniment continues in the bass clef. The lyrics are 'We sa - lute it, and we pray God to bless our land to - day.'

THE FLAG OF BRITAIN.

f

But if du - ty stern-ly need it, Free ly let it be un-fur'l'd,

Winds of Hea-ven then may speed it To each quar-ter of the world.

rall.

We sa - lute it, and we pray God to bless our land to-day.

Andante.

Love of it, a - cross the wa-ters Passing with e - lec - tric thrill,

Binds our distant sons and daughters Heart to heart with Britain still.

THE FLAG OF BRITAIN.

rall.

We sa-lute it, and we pray God to bless our land to-day.

f

Tri-ple hues for ev - er blend-ed, England, Ireland, Scotland, one,

By right loy - al hearts de-fend - ed, Let it wave be-neath the sun,

rall.

We sa - lute it, and we pray God to bless our land to - day.



OUR EMPIRE

VOLUME I.

GREAT BRITAIN IN EUROPE

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INTRODUCTION.

“What do they know of England who only England know?”
KIPLING.

“A PEOPLE,” writes Macaulay, “which takes no pride in the noble achievements of remote ancestors will never achieve anything worthy to be remembered by remote descendants.” How best to utilise the splendid opportunities, the high traditions transmitted to us from our forefathers, is a subject affecting us all.

“This little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
.
.
.
This blessed spot, this earth, this realm, this England,”

has become a mighty mother of “mighty empires and republics,” in whose destiny each of us has a voice.

These volumes are the outcome of a desire to increase the prevailing knowledge of our Imperial heritage, that its value may be enriched by intelligent endeavour and patriotism on our part and on our children’s part after us. They represent an effort to

furnish general readers and students with a knowledge of the materials which have been used in the building of the British Empire, and of the results which have opened up to our people innumerable opportunities of benefiting the human race.

As the story of our Empire unfolds, the reader will not fail to grasp the vast significance of sea-power in the evolution of England into a world-wide state ; how by maritime skill and daring, first the kingdom, then the Empire, was founded, strengthened, consolidated, and maintained.

The growth of the Empire has been traced by gradual steps. The aim of the authors of this work has been to show how, as Macaulay eloquently describes, "the England of Domesday Book, the England of the Curfew and the Forest Laws, the England of crusaders, monks, schoolmen, astrologers, serfs, and outlaws became the England which we know and love, the classic ground of liberty and philosophy, the school of all knowledge, the mart of all trade ;" and how "this little world set in the silver sea" became the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland—the heart of a vast Empire. They have tried to show the rise of our splendid navy, and the gallant part played by our merchant fleet ; how the genius and daring of our seamen outstripped all rivals, won the sea, and so brought about peaceful security at home, and gave us the prize of empire abroad.

First comes the central drama, the life-story of Great Britain, "the source of united empires." Then the story of Greater Britain, our Colonial and Indian Empire. There was a time, and that not so very long ago, when comparatively few persons in this country knew anything of the nature and extent of the Monarch's dominions outside the British Isles. A story is told of a certain English statesman who cheerfully undertook the duties of Secretary of State for the Colonies, but did not even know where some of them were to be found. "Don't you think," he suggested to his secretary, "it would be a good thing to get down a map and let us see where these places are?" The story, whether true or not, scarcely exaggerates the ignorance concerning our Colonial Empire in the past. At present, however, our statesmen have awakened to the duty of commanding as thorough and complete a knowledge as possible of the countries and peoples under the Flag. But the people of Great Britain—"the head and heart of the whole organism of the Empire"—proud as they are of the prestige of world-wide rule, know far too little of the outlying parts; yet adequate knowledge is the necessary equipment for the fulfilment of Imperial duties. Then, again, many a colonist, though he may be fairly well acquainted with the history of his own and of the Mother Country, is often not as conversant as he should be with that of the other portions of the Empire of which his

Colony is but a unit. Year by year there is an increasing need for a keener intelligence in this direction, and as the sense of distance and separation narrows there is less and less excuse for ignorance. Since our external history is less familiar to the inhabitants of Great Britain than domestic events, more attention is devoted in these pages to the former.

The first substantial fact to realise is that our Colonies and Dependencies are of various origin and growth, and that they are curiously unlike. No two stand on precisely the same footing. An attempt has been made to tell something in turn of the history and conditions, past and present, of each, whether it be of one of our great self-governing Colonies or of a fortified rock in mid-ocean; to explain how they came under the Union Jack, the nature of the relationship to the Mother Country, and the advantages and general results of the union.

Believing that the more we know of its history the greater will be our power to help forward the development of our Empire, it is hoped that these volumes will be of use in stimulating the study of this all-important subject. With a clearer idea of the Imperial spirit, we realise the responsibilities attached to us individually as citizens of a world-wide State, and there comes the knowledge that we have part and share in the fortunes of the meanest

fragment of Great Britain over-sea. We advance a step farther. Our patriotism widens. The Colonial history of our separated kinsfolk and fellow-subjects becomes essentially our own, to the confusion of mischief-makers, whether home-bred or of foreign origin, to the closer union of the Empire, and to the strengthening of its power as a factor in the progress of the world.

Happily, of late a quickened impulse has been given to the study of Imperial questions both at home and abroad. The public opinion of the self-governing portions has awakened to a consciousness of the magnificent future which awaits the sons of British blood if only they be true to themselves, firm in their resolve of mutual co-operation, faithful to noble ideals, determined not to yield to "craven fears of being great," but boldly resolve to take upon their shoulders that "white man's burden"—the protection and uplifting of dependent races—of which by far the larger portion has fallen to the lot of the British Empire.

At home an important forward step was taken when the Education Department instructed its Inspectors in their examinations of the fourth and higher standards in elementary schools to call attention to our distant possessions, "their productions, government, and resources, and to those climatic and other conditions" which render them "suitable fields for emigration and for honourable enterprise."

This shows that the State is resolved that its children shall not grow up in ignorance of what the British Empire is—what it means to them individually. Every year the value of a proper knowledge respecting our Colonial and Indian Empire is becoming more and more appreciated in this country. It is now felt to be a matter of vital national consequence that all who dwell beneath the protecting influence of the Union Jack should have some understanding of the history, extent, power, and resources of the great Empire to which they belong ; and some idea of the operative forces, geographical, social, and political, which have been at work in constructing so vast and prosperous a State.

Such knowledge is of the first importance, and it should enable the people of Great Britain to realise the boundless opportunities which are their possession, whilst it can scarcely fail to arouse a lively appreciation of those grand struggles, which have, by God's providence, helped to build the Empire, and to bring about the existing happy conditions of our race. The traditions of the Flag, and the example set in the pages of its history may well nourish patriotism. We have there a brave record of unfaltering devotion to duty, heroic industry and manly constancy, and fear of nothing but dishonour. This golden legacy should stimulate the sons and daughters of the Empire to essay their best also in the interests of their common and glorious heritage out of a like patriotic love, and

out of devotion to duty, and to a high ideal. Their patriotism, too, if they master the lesson aright, will be as far-reaching as the Empire, and of such fine loyalty that racial distinctions will give way to a noble citizenship supremely bent on drawing together in friendliest concord those whom destiny has united under one flag, and made their fellow-subjects of the Empire.

At this moment the whole Empire is lamenting the loss of our beloved Queen, Victoria the Good, whose marvellous sympathy, self-sacrificing love, and care for her people of every race and clime, drew all hearts with passionate loyalty to herself, and into closest and surest union with the Mother-land. Shall not the memory of her ceaseless toil, her hopes, her care, and surpassing love for the humblest of her subjects, inspire us with grace to shrink from no endeavour in doing our share towards maintaining inviolate and unsullied the immeasurable trust she has bequeathed?

A magnificent library of books upon the different portions of the Empire is rapidly accumulating, contributed by writers whose high place in the literary world and intimate knowledge of the histories and territories they describe render them trustworthy authorities, and stamp their works as a peerless legacy to the nation. All available literature of this class has been freely laid under contribution, as also our standard histories and other books of

reference, accounts of early voyages and discoveries, and those valuable aids, the Colonial Office List, India Office List, and the Australian Year Book. Where possible the facts have been taken from official sources, and great pains have been taken to ensure accuracy by consulting the best authorities on specific subjects.

There only remains the pleasant task of cordially thanking all those who, in varying degrees, have afforded assistance either by direct information and suggestions or by reading over and correcting draft chapters, and the authors take this opportunity of tendering sincere thanks for their valuable help. Their special gratitude is due to the late Sir William Wilson Hunter, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., and to Sir Alfred Lyall, G.C.B., D.C.L., our two authorities on Indian History, for help and counsel, and for the immense material aid derived from their published writings on India, notably from Sir Alfred Lyall's treatise, "The Rise of the British Dominion in India." They desire to convey a warm expression of thanks to—

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all of whom have assisted either by corrections or suggestions on specific subjects, to the benefit and improvement of these volumes. In conclusion, the authors desire to express their grateful appreciation of the great assistance rendered by the authorities at the British Museum.

CHAPTER I.

LEADING DATES.

- A.D. 1494. Treaty of Tordesillas.
1497. John Cabot and the New World of the West.
1558-1603. Elizabethan "Period of Preparation."
1600. East India Company chartered.
1607. Commencement of English colonisation—Virginia planted.
1757. Battle of Plassey. Foundations of Indian Empire laid.
1759. Capture of Quebec. Conquest of Canada.
1775. Revolt of the American Colonies.
1783. American Independence. Treaty of Versailles.
1801. The United Kingdom formally created.
1832. First Reform Act.
1837-1901. Victorian Age of Progress.
1839. Education Department called into existence.
1840. Penny Postage begins.
1858. First Colonial offer towards Imperial Defence.
1858. Government of India transferred from the E.I.C. to the Crown.
1867. Dominion of Canada formed.
1867. Second Reform Act.
1884. Third Reform Act.
1885. Canadian and Pacific Railway completed.
1885. New South Wales Contingent in Soudan.
1888. Australia provides an Imperial Squadron.
1899. Imperial Penny Postage begins.
1899. All-British Cable projected.
1899-1901. War in South Africa—Colonies give military assistance.
1900. Commonwealth of Australia.

“Thou who of Thy free grace did'st build up this Britannick Empire
to a glorious and enviable heighth, with all her Daughter Islands about
her, stay us in this felicitie.”—JOHN MILTON.

CHAPTER I.

A SHORT RECORD OF IMPERIAL PROGRESS.

THE fabric of the British Empire rests upon sea-power. As mistress of the seas, the open waterways of the world have carried us securely from the British Isles, our naval base, into all quarters of the globe. This is the one great axiom overruling all others in the "Expansion of England." How valiantly that sea-power was won, we shall see later on. The remarkable development may be traced to the operation of irresistible natural forces and impulses, rather than to a deliberate national policy persistently followed. The insular position of the Mother-land, its restricted area, its hardy race of seamen, and its long-continued supremacy at sea, combined with the love of adventure which characterises its people and its trading instincts, have all favoured growth. But it is also due in no small degree to the wisdom, patriotism, long-sightedness, and fostering care of two female sovereigns, Elizabeth and Victoria. "Elizabeth," says Martin, in his "British Colonies," "clearly foresaw that England could neither obtain

nor maintain a prominent position among the nations of Europe except by means of her maritime power, which could only be insured by the possession of Colonies. Encouragement was therefore offered to facilitate the discovery of hitherto unknown regions, and for the planting of new settlements."

Towards the end of the fifteenth century two great events broke the silence of the unknown seas, and changed the destinies of the mediæval powers. First, Columbus, turning the prow of his vessel westwards, discovered America, and added "a New World to the Old." Next, Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and found the sea-road to India. Most of us know how narrowly England missed the glory of discovering America ; how Columbus, having failed again and again to obtain ships or money for his expedition from either Lisbon or Madrid, turned at last to England, and made his offer to King Henry VII. His emissary, his brother Bartholomew, came to London, and Henry was graciously pleased to invite Christopher to come to this country and arrange the necessary details of the voyage. Hurrying homeward with this encouraging message, Bartholomew fell into the hands of pirates, who detained him until too late. Henry's patronage was forestalled, and before Bartholomew returned Christopher had sailed on his quest under the flag of Queen Isabella of Spain. The months passed, and then there came a day when "a little bark, leaky and tempest-tossed,

sought shelter in the Tagus. It had come from the Far West—over that stormy sea where, from the creation until then, had brooded an impenetrable mystery. It bore the richest freight that ever lay upon the bosom of the deep—the tidings of a New World.” *

The whole basis of power was altered by these discoveries. Henceforth the wealth and importance of the great trading nations settled around the shores of the Mediterranean declined. “The Mediterranean was displaced from her ancient position as the centre of civilisation. Her place was taken by the Atlantic, and power came to be estimated, not by a nation’s importance in Europe, but by its position in the world. Spain, Portugal, France, and England, which stood on the Atlantic, as Greece and Carthage had stood on the Mediterranean, became the most powerful States in the world.” † But the four nations did not burst into political prominence simultaneously. Spain and Portugal shared the honour of the new discoveries—the finding of America and the sea-road to India. But it was Portugal which, inspired by Prince Henry the Navigator, and benefiting by his famous School of Navigation, gave the lead to Europe in exploration. Before the sixteenth century dawned the Portuguese fleets were busy in the harbours of India. The Spaniards had begun their

* “The Making of the Empire,” by Arthur Temple.

† See “Our Colonies and India,” by Cyril Ransome, M.A. Oxon.

search for gold in the West. The silks and spices, the gold and jewels, all the rich treasures of the gorgeous East, were carried round the Cape of Good Hope into European markets, and the old caravan trade, which had formerly brought Eastern goods to the Mediterranean ports, whence they were shipped to the various markets, dwindled into insignificance as the wealth and power of Spain and Portugal grew. To assuage the jealous Colonial rivalry which at one time threatened to break into open quarrel between the two, their claims were submitted to the Pope for arbitration. Whereupon the Pope settled the controversy by drawing a straight line west of the Azores ; the western lands he gave to Spain, and the eastern lands to Portugal. The claimants accepted the decision, and the agreement was made binding by the Treaty of Tordesillas in 1494.

After this settlement the Portuguese continued to explore the seas, and trade on the coasts of their newly discovered countries. The Spaniards built up a Colonial Empire in the West. Their search was for the precious metals, and the Spanish Colonies were planted, as a rule, for the purpose of working the gold and silver mines of the country. Spain grew rich. Gold from the Colonies poured into the treasury. A magnificent fleet was maintained to protect the galleons which crossed and re-crossed the Atlantic, laden with plunder from the rich mines of Mexico and Peru, or with tropical products from the Spanish West Indies.

The hard-and-fast rule amongst the early colonising nations was that the Colonies might only trade with the parent country, and in this restriction lay the germ of our long maritime struggle with Spain. Although forestalled by Spain in the matter of discovering America, Henry VII.; his sailors and merchants, were quite as eager as either Spain or Portugal to seize the chance of exploration, and to find fresh channels for their trading expeditions. England had no intention of being shut out from the New World of the West, or of standing by whilst Spain carried off all the honour and gains of exploring its shores.

In the spring of 1497, an Italian seaman, one John Cabot, living at the time in England, sailed from Bristol for the West, carrying the English monarch's patent, which gave him authority to set up the banner of St. George on "any new-found land." "A happy instinct" drew Cabot northward, and the splendid annals of English maritime discovery began with his voyage to the New World. Land was sighted on June 24th, 1497, and the King's banner was hoisted forthwith on the shores of Newfoundland. The story of Cabot's voyage and discovery leaked out, and the men of Devon and the West Country were quickly on the trail. Our seamen were always ready for adventure and fresh trading enterprise, and they found both in the stormy Atlantic fisheries. The daring gentry of the western counties fitted out their

little fishing fleets, and before long English fishermen were hard at work on the Banks of Newfoundland. "The Englishmen . . . commonly are lords of the harbors where they fish," Anthony Parkhurst wrote of their operations in Newfoundland to Hakluyt in 1578, which shows us that the men of Devon held their ground against adventurers of other nations. Fighting and fishing went hand in hand in Tudor times and long after, but before the time of Elizabeth a substantial trade had been created by the English fishery in Newfoundland waters, and our seamen were receiving their training. "The cod-fishing," writes Judge Prowse, "made Englishmen sailors and Britain a maritime power."

With the Reformation the last flicker of a scruple amongst Englishmen about breaking the Papal decree assigning the lands west of the Azores to Spain, died out. England had seen first Portugal, then Spain grow prosperous and powerful, enriched by the wealth of over-sea possessions, and a spirit of resistance to the ever-increasing power of Spain awakened. Sole mistress of the New World Spain should not be, if the daring of English seamen could hinder her. By the time of Elizabeth Spain had become the mightiest land-power in Europe, and owned the finest navy in the world. With King Philip's conquest of Portugal the one rival that, as yet, had challenged Spain's supremacy on the seas dropped its ensign and flew the Spanish flag. Thus Spain claimed

mastery in the four great seas—the Atlantic, the Mediterranean, the Pacific, and the Indian. Since the Portuguese Colonies had come into his keeping, the Spaniard claimed a monopoly, not only of the New World of the West, but over the lucrative trade of the East. Spanish galleóns loaded with rich merchandise and escorted by an armed fleet, sailed to and fro round the Cape along the new sea-road to India, and all other European traders were threatened with direst penalties should they presume to interfere in the traffic.

But Spain's close-fisted hold upon the Colonial markets of the West, and upon the sea-borne trade of India, only served as a stimulus to our seamen on the south-west coast. One method,

“The good old rule, the simple plan
That they should take who have the power,
And they should keep who can,”

was universally practised. Our sailor race had taken part in the glory of discovery, and their ambition was fired to enter the lists and compete for a share in the prize of the New World. The exigencies of trade pressed for new markets, so our merchants fitted out their ships and embarked on distant and perilous enterprises in search of fresh outlets, and the flag of St. George was carried to strange ports never visited before by Englishmen. The trade begun with the Mediterranean under Richard III. was developed; Richard Chancellor pushed his way to the court of

Ivan the Terrible, and opened trade with Russia ; the lucrative Guinea traffic drew English vessels to West Africa ; the Newfoundland Cod-Banks called our fishing fleets to the New World ; other merchants journeyed to Iceland, and made their venture there.

The English Queen "lent a ready patronage to the new commerce ; she shared in its speculations, she considered its extension and protection as part of public policy." * But it must be owned that some queer doings went on under that old St. George's flag. It was not all genuine and legitimate commerce that was carried on under the English ensign, and our sailors and merchants took ample revenge for being jealously excluded from the Spanish Colonial trade. Religious animosity had sown the seeds of a national feud between Spain and England, and commercial jealousy added new zest to the conflict. As fresh stories of the cruelties of Spain were repeated in English ports, the flame of popular passion against the Spanish monarch kindled into a full blaze of Protestant fervour. Not only the roving buccaneers who scoured the seas attacked and sacked the Spanish treasure-ships, but English sailors to a man—the best and bravest of the Elizabethan seamen—flung themselves into the maritime combat with Spain, and waged a ruthless war upon her sea-borne commerce, and burned her towns and shipping, whilst yet,

* Green.

officially, the two Sovereigns, Philip and Elizabeth, were at peace. But more than mere "lust of gold" lay behind such deeds in the minds of the highest and best of Elizabeth's great sea-captains. The destruction of the Spaniard—to break the dread power of a tyranny which left no room for the young Protestantism of Europe to prosper—was the cherished dream of Drake and men of a like mould. Therefore, their courage and confidence rose with each fresh victory.

That brave old admiral, Sir Hugh Willoughby, met his death in Arctic seas before Elizabeth came to the throne, but the no less intrepid explorer, Sir Martin Frobisher, hard-headed Sir John Hawkins, gallant Lord Howard of Effingham, brave Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and, greater than any in the group, Sir Francis Drake, the arch enemy of Spain, and Sir Walter Raleigh,—all in turn felt the inspiring influence of the

"Great Lady of the greatest isle, whose light,
Like Phœbus' lamp, throughout the world doth shine,"

and vied with each other in serving their Virgin Queen, and in making her name a terror wherever the salt waters flowed.

The Elizabethan period, splendidly great and progressive, view it from which side you will, land or sea, was emphatically a part of what Sir Walter Besant has called "England's preparation." In it

she discovered her strength on the seas ; and in the long maritime wrestling with Spain she received her earliest impetus towards Colonial expansion. But in spite of the brilliant achievements and discoveries of Elizabeth's famous seamen, their tenacity and their courage, and the Sovereign's own far-seeing determination to plant Colonies in the new-found lands, no permanent Colony was actually effected. It remains a historical fact that at the close of Elizabeth's reign every attempted scheme of settlement (if we look upon Newfoundland as a trading port only) had fallen through, and England—Great Britain was unformed—held no possession outside Europe. For one thing, our population was too small. In the seventeenth century, when a fresh stream of maritime conquest and commercial enterprise set in—to swell into a flood during the eighteenth century—the subjects of the English Crown numbered only five millions. The Charter granted to the English East India Company in 1600 commenced the story of the English in the East, and permanent English colonisation is considered by most of our historians to date from the Charter signed by James I. for the planting of Virginia in the West, in 1607. The appetite for over-sea trading and colonisation, once created, was fed by “the instinct of self-preservation.” Colonial markets were necessary to sustain the life of the people. Therefore “without haste and without rest,” the English ships put forth from the home ports, and

began the outlines of the Empire ; and we have a long series of commercial wars, beginning with those of William III. and ending with the battle of Waterloo, to show the tremendous efforts made by our ancestors to win Colonial Empire.

But throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, whilst our ships ploughed the seas and our sailors fought, bled, and conquered in the struggle with Spain, France, and Holland, whilst Clive, with 1000 unconquerable Britons, was laying the foundations of our Indian Empire at Plassey in 1757, and whilst Wolfe, two years later, in scaling the heights of Abraham and by the capture of Quebec, was adding to the British Crown the splendid appanage of Canada, and whilst forts, settlements, and trading factories multiplied north, south, east, and west on the surface of the globe, great, heroic, puissant struggles were going on nearer home. The incalculable blessings of civil and religious liberty were being gradually but surely won, and the Constitution of the country was being "broad-based upon the People's will."

One year after the close of these two centuries a process of supreme national and political importance was completed. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland had been formally created. On January 1st, 1801, a new Imperial Standard streamed from London Tower, Edinburgh and Dublin Castles, displaying the three crosses of St. George, St. Andrew,

and St. Patrick, an emblem of the Union of the three Countries.

If the lion-hearted Elizabeth was an inspiration to her people, far greater has been the gracious and inspiring influence of Victoria the Good, and that not only throughout the length and breadth of the smaller realm bequeathed by Elizabeth, but over that vast Empire of which Elizabeth had no dim intimation.

But it is not the amazing territorial development, it is the unity of the Empire, compacted by ardent love and reverence to the Throne, that shows the strength and greatness of Victoria's power. The personality of our late gracious Sovereign cannot fail to impress itself on the imagination of every student of the history of the Empire, for in the course of her glorious reign it has been nearly doubled in extent, in population, and in power.

Few years will have more grateful remembrance in the country's history than 1897, when, on the 21st of June, our late beloved Queen entered on the sixty-first year of her rule, a time happily prolonged beyond the lengthiest reign of any one of her royal predecessors. Queen Victoria not only sat on the throne longer than any other British Sovereign, but by her goodness and her wisdom, during these sixty odd years, she gave her people just cause to thank God that her life was so long spared to them. During her reign immense changes occurred. The



WINDSOR CASTLE FROM THE RIVER THAMES.

people of Great Britain and Ireland, notwithstanding the large numbers who migrated year by year to found new homes across the seas, increased from twenty-five to forty millions. They have more than doubled their revenue, and they have raised the value of their foreign trade from £125,000,000 to over £764,000,000. They have made great advances in civilisation and in knowledge, and, it is to be hoped, also in the virtues which make a people truly great. At any rate, there is to be found amongst all classes a growing desire to translate into practical life the humane principles of the Christian religion. Above all, the example set by the late Queen as sovereign, daughter, wife, and mother, has not been without its ennobling influence on her people.

Picture for one moment the wide difference between the political and social conditions of Great Britain as they were when Queen Victoria ascended the throne in 1837, on the death of her uncle, William IV., and as they exist now. Let us summarise some of these various changes, to show how enormously the conditions of the country have become modified. We can well imagine that the insularity of Great Britain, that "dreamy isolation," as Sir Walter Besant describes it, was a very real hardship to our earlier Colonists. How terribly the feeling of distance and separation must have weighed upon them! The wide sea rolled between them and the old country, and a deadly silence prevailed, broken only at rare

intervals with news already grown old while travelling. Yet much the same deadly silence kept the people of the home counties apart. There were then no railways, fast steamers, telegraphs, telephones, or penny post, whilst many of the forces of nature, including electricity and mineral oil, were put to no practical use in the service of mankind. People travelled very rarely, and, with the exception of the wealthy, only when compelled to do so by their business. It was dangerous to walk through the ill-paved, dark, oil-lit streets, even of the largest towns, by night, as, with the exception of the small band of the Metropolitan Police, which had been lately remodelled by Mr. (later on Sir Robert) Peel, in 1829, our well-organised police were not in existence, and only a few decrepit old watchmen in provincial towns hid themselves in their sentry-boxes at the approach of danger.

Correspondence was small, fewer post-paid letters being sent at that time than there are telegrams now. And small wonder, for the rate of postage was then fourpence for fifteen miles ; it cost a shilling to send a letter three hundred miles, and foreign postage was correspondingly dear. To write to South America cost three shillings and sixpence, and even a letter to France was tenpence. The Penny Postage began in 1840, and under the present reduced rates twenty-two times the number of letters that were dispatched in 1836 are now posted. The postage reform did not

come without a struggle ; reform very rarely does. The then Postmaster-General, speaking of the proposed Penny Post, predicted no good things. "Of all the wild, visionary schemes I have ever heard of," he is reported to have said, "it is the most extravagant!" Rowland Hill was a truer prophet when he declared it would be a "beneficent power, socially, commercially, and morally."

Newspapers were dear, and few in number. Books, in spite of the fact that eighteen hundred volumes were published in the first year of her late Majesty's reign, were still a luxury. Charles Knight, it is true, had just started (1832) his admirable Penny Magazine ; Chambers' and a few other high-toned periodicals were in the field, but, with these few exceptions, there were no cheap magazines and novels, and no popular circulating libraries. Until Queen Victoria's Accession little attempt had been made to diffuse sound information on national affairs, or to provide wholesome literature at popular prices. The State had not begun to trouble itself about the education of the people—that was left to private effort—and but for the Church of England, the Roman Catholics, the Nonconformists, and a few public-spirited private individuals, principally landowners, who maintained schools on their properties at their own expense, the education of the poor would have been entirely neglected. As it was, large numbers could neither read nor write.

Wages were low, in some places not more than sixpence a day, whilst clothes and food were dear, for Protection was in force ; that is, foreign food and stuffs coming into the country were taxed, so as to increase the price of home produce, and to raise a revenue. The result was that at the opening of the century the four-pound loaf for which we pay 6*d.* cost 1*s.* 4*d.*, or even 1*s.* 8*d.*, and the price of a quarter of wheat was 110*s.* instead of 30*s.* Everything was then taxed. According to the Chancellor of the Exchequer's speech when presenting the estimate in the Jubilee year, a labouring man in 1836 paid £2 3*s.* 5*d.* a year taxation on what he and his family consumed in the five articles, sugar, tea, tobacco, soap, and pepper, these same commodities now costing him 12*s.* 5½*d.* only, besides which the rate of wages since then has risen considerably. Looking back, we see how much there was to dishearten and sadden the brave young Queen when first she came to the throne. England was not quite happy. It had a good deal to bear at that time. True, the century had seen some glorious victories ; but the expenses of war and bad harvests are not light burdens, and depression was prevalent throughout the United Kingdom. The National Debt—"the price we pay for the largest Colonial Empire the world has ever seen"—stood at £761,422,000 ; it had even risen to over £900,000,000 in 1816, at the conclusion of the Great War. The fact that on March 31st, 1900, it was reduced to £639,165,265

speaks eloquently of greater national prosperity. But for a long time the distress and suffering amongst the poor people was very great. Few of them had decent homes to live in. Model cottages and artisans' dwellings were unknown. Savings' Banks had been started, but only 598,000 persons deposited savings in them, whereas now there are over 8,000,000 who invest in the Post Office Savings' Bank alone, to say nothing of the numerous depositors who take advantage of the National Penny Bank, and other encouragements to thrift.

There was little or no attempt made to look after the health of the people, although Dr. Southwood Smith commenced an agitation on the subject of public health in England in 1832. Sanitary laws had not been passed, and consequently sanitary officers did not exist. The present Poor Law system for the relief of the destitute had only recently been established, in 1834, and the middle classes had been admitted for the first time only two years before that, in 1832, to a share in the government of the country. The working classes had no votes, and were destined to wait until the Reform Bills of 1867 and 1884 before they were granted to them by Parliament.

By an Order in Council of 1839 the Education Department was called into existence, and it began its work in a very modest spirit. Many persons, however, objected to the State interfering with the education of its children, and Lord John Russell's Ministry had

to defend a moderate grant of £100,000 for public elementary instruction, against stout resistance from the Liberals in the House of Commons of that day. Two generations have passed, and the extraordinary change that has taken place in the minds of British legislators may be seen by the fact that in 1898-99 the annual expenditure of School Boards in England and Wales alone exceeded ten and a half millions, while over five and a half million children, with the exception of about 700,000, were receiving free education in England and Wales. In April, 1900, the Education Department further enlarged its sphere of activity by absorbing the functions of the Science and Art Department.

Up to this time our outlook has been principally confined to the United Kingdom, politically known as Great Britain, but in following its history we cannot fail to perceive the gathering signs of the preparedness for Imperial development. The successive stages in the glorious march of progress, especially those made during Her late Majesty's reign, tended towards consolidation and extension—a remarkable fact when it is remembered that at its inauguration even staunch Conservatives gloomily predicted that monarchy in England was on the point of extinction, and that the destiny of the Colonies was separation from the Mother Country.

Now let us glance at Greater Britain over the broad seas, at those great footholds of the race which

have become vast and important States of the Empire, charged with mighty moral and political significance. It is not easy to grasp the magnitude of this Empire of ours, to realise its nature, extent, possibilities, and, not least, its obligations and power. We have spread our influence over the globe in a marvellous manner. We have brought into existence a great family of nations, some free and prosperous communities, strong in our strength as we are made strong by them ; others advancing in education and self-discipline, and assimilating those civic virtues which lead to the freeman's goal—self-government ; whilst to all dependent races the Pax Britannica holds out the blessings of civilisation and peace under a just and equitable government.

Taken by themselves, the British Isles, the heart of the Empire—"two islands lost in the northern sea"—are small and insignificant. They have a total area slightly under 121,000 square miles to sustain an over-crowded population of 40,000,000.

It is a far more difficult matter to give an exact statement in regard to the size and population of the Colonies and Dependencies, since the Empire outside the United Kingdom is in a constant state of expansion. Roughly speaking, the outlines of our Colonial Empire were blocked out when the battle of Waterloo settled the peace of Europe ; * but ever since that date the square mileage has been growing, and

* Professor Ransome.

the process of filling in has been going on. The peninsula of Aden, on the coast of Arabia, acquired in 1839, was the first addition to the Empire after Queen Victoria's accession. In the intervening years the foundations of Empire have been enlarged and strengthened in every quarter of the globe, our frontiers have been carried forward, fresh territories have been added, and a chain of naval outposts has been completed to link the Empire together and protect its commerce and lines of communication. As an illustration of its rapid growth, speaking at Birmingham in January, 1897, Mr. Chamberlain, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, described the Empire as being at that time 11,000,000 square miles in extent, and as containing more than 350,000,000 people. Before three years had passed vast tracts of additional territory had come under the flag, and, exclusive of the British influence in Egypt, the area of the Empire had increased to nearer 12,000,000 square miles, and it embraced not 350,000,000, but "400,000,000 of people of almost every race under the sun." That is to say, the area outside the United Kingdom is more than ninety-nine times the area of the Mother Country, and the population is ten times as large. Though these millions are scattered throughout all the five great divisions of the globe—Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Australasia—railways, fast steamers, and cheap postage break down the barrier of distance, and link the various

communities together. Then, again, all our possessions are connected with the world's telegraphic system, except British Honduras, Tobago, St. Helena, New Guinea, and the small islands. Statistics are apt to be wearisome, but in order to give some idea of the magnitude of the figures quoted, it may be well to compare them with those of the other large countries of the world.

China alone is supposed to have a slightly larger population, the nearest estimate of which gives 402,680,000. Her total area is, however, far less, covering 4,218,401 square miles. No other country approaches our Empire in either dimensions or population.

Russia, which shows such an enormous extent of compact territories on the maps of Europe and Asia, comes next in size and population. Exclusive of the new province of Kwang-Tung, it comprises 8,644,100 square miles, with a population of 129,000,000.

France (area 204,092 square miles) within the last fifteen years has made enormous strides in colonisation. During a decade and a half she has annexed nearly a third of Africa, and has continued to make a steady irruption into Asia. With her Colonies and Protectorates, including Algeria and Tunis, but exclusive of the Sahara additions, she has a Colonial area of 3,740,000 square miles, and a Colonial population of 56,401,860 ; so that, apart from the Soudan, the Republic controls an area of 3,944,092 square miles, and a population of over 96 millions.

The United States, which ranks next in size and numbers, had at the census of 1890 an area of 3,501,000 square miles, and a population of 62,622,250.* But even the United States has been bitten by the ubiquitous "Colonial microbe," and, as Lord Rosebery humorously describes it, in addition to this block of territory, "finds itself sitting like a startled hen on a brood of unnumbered islands in the Philippine group."

Germany (area 208,830 square miles) has likewise started at full speed as a colonising nation. At present, with Colonies and Dependencies (area 1,027,120 square miles, population, in round figures, some 14,687,000), the Fatherland controls over 1,235,950 square miles, with a population roughly estimated at 61,542,704.†

It is, however, "impossible to compare States. Mere area, mere population," to use Lord Rosebery's words, "do not necessarily imply power; still less do they imply the security and contentment of the inhabitants. . . . We have to consider not others, but ourselves. It is not alien Empires which concern us, except when they menace or compete. Our first main necessary responsibility is to our own. It is so vast, so splendid, so pregnant, that we have to ask ourselves, Are we adequate to it? Can we discharge our responsibility to God and to man for so magnificent, so populous a

* The results of the last census have not yet been tabulated.

† "Statesman's Year Book for 1900" (J. Scott Keltie, LL.D.).

proportion of the world? . . . Are we worthy of this prodigious inheritance? Is the race which holds it capable of maintaining and developing it? . . . Are we going the right way about our work, and are our methods abreast of our times?"

These are lofty questions, but the enormous growth of the Empire is the loftiest, as it is also the most critical British problem of the day, and it must be faced. The comparison showing the size of the British Empire relative to the other States of the world does help us in a manner to realise more vividly its present greatness and power. For one thing it makes us understand that it is not the British Isles, but the British Empire that has to be reckoned as the State. It is as Mistress of India, and possessing a magnificent Colonial Empire, that the "measure of Great Britain's power is calculated amongst the nations." It is this union with our Great Dependency and our Colonies which raises Great Britain to her exalted position—a position impossible to her as an isolated little State.

But if it be asked, Of what material advantage or use—apart from territorial greatness—are our Colonies and Dependencies to the Mother Country? a simple and ready answer is, that Trade follows the Flag. Our Colonies and Dependencies increase our trade, consequently the larger the Empire the more customers there are for home manufactures. This is a matter of vital importance to a country like Great

Britain, since she cannot produce within her islands food enough to feed her large population of 40,000,000. Untold suffering must result, and her people starve, if she could not sell her manufactures, or if she once lost command of the sea, and could not import food from her Colonies in return for the manufactured articles she sends them. Deprived of our Colonies and Dependencies, the inhabitants of the British Isles would be badly off. But, as Professor Ransome points out, supposing every foreign port were fast closed against our ships, with our Colonies and Dependencies no single product or commodity need be wanting. In other language, our Empire is self-supporting. "Everything that is necessary, or useful, or grateful to man, is produced under the Union Jack." And here the vast importance of our sea-power comes into prominence. Two-thirds of our trade is sea-borne. The food imports alone into the United Kingdom amount to £140,000,000, one-fifth of which comes from our own Colonies and Dependencies. In 1899 the steam and sailing vessels registered under the British flag numbered 11,000, being two-fifths in number and one-half in tonnage of the shipping of the world. The export and import trade of the United Kingdom, with her Colonies and Dependencies, and with the United States of America and foreign countries, reaches a grand total of £800,000,000. In addition, an immense quantity of goods is carried in British ships for foreign countries.

At present the sea-borne foreign trade of Great Britain, including the value of the ships themselves, is estimated at no less a sum than £2,000,000,000 per annum. With this enormous volume of commerce afloat on the ocean, under the British flag it needs no great effort to see how essential it is that its safety should be secured, and that the sea high-roads should be in our own hands, kept clear from enemies, and open for the carrying-trade of all friendly nations. An efficient Navy is the only guarantee for the protection of this huge carrying-fleet and its all-important food-supply. Now, the annual cost of the Navy, according to the latest estimates, does not amount to five per cent. of the export and import trade, nor to one and a quarter per cent. of the shipping trade, so it is a light premium that we pay for our enormous trade, and without our coaling-stations and fortresses the operations of our Navy would be ineffective.

Our Colonies do more than increase our trade; they offer magnificent outlets for our surplus population. In Elizabeth's day England was too thinly peopled to start a colonising mission. To-day the British Isles are over-crowded, and as the population increases annually at the rate of nearly 300,000 (taking an average over thirty years), there comes the question of their settlement. It is not difficult to forecast the terrible distress that must follow if about half this number could not annually leave these shores and go where there is abundance of

room. Say to Canada, a magnificent country, full of possibilities, and which would hold the population of the United Kingdom thirty times over,—or to any other Colonies where they may find new homes in countries where similar customs, language, and religion exist as well as just laws, free government, and personal liberty, under the same Flag and Sovereign.

But, on the other hand, the advantage to the Colonist and to those who inhabit our Dependencies of belonging to the Empire is no less real and practical. Instead of being separate isolated communities without national life or unity, and exposed to attack or annexation at the hands of foreign States, the Colonies and Dependencies find themselves in combination with an Empire greater than the world has known, and share the prestige of its world-wide rule. Under the ægis of the Union Jack they may fearlessly face the world, and are able to devote their whole energies to the development of their possessions and “the advancement of the national destiny.” The Federation of the Dominion of Canada in 1867, and that of the Commonwealth of Australia in 1900, afford the best evidences of the success of British Colonial rule, and are the surest foundations of our Empire. On either side, Imperial and Colonial, the wide beneficence and usefulness of extended Empire declares itself.

“How marvellous it all is! Built not by saints and

angels, but the work of men's hands ; cemented with men's honest blood and with a world of tears, welded by the best brains of centuries past ; not without the taint and reproach incidental to all human work, but constructed, on the whole, with pure and splendid purpose. Human, and yet not wholly human, for the most heedless and the most cynical must see the finger of the Divine. Growing as trees grow, while others slept ; fed by the faults of others as well as by the character of our fathers ; reaching with the ripple of a resistless tide over tracts, and islands, and continents, until our little Britain woke up to find herself the foster-mother of nations and the source of united Empires." *

Though not wholly free from "the taint and reproach incidental to all human work," and with some things yet to be undone—notably in our dealings with subject peoples—"justice, civilisation, and peace" are being carried into the dark places of the world, and "our rule is justified by the improvements we have caused." Nor would it be possible to over-estimate the rich field for action and the magnificent opportunities which the Empire offers. At the same time there are responsibilities and obligations which cannot be evaded. Puissance and magnitude are apt to prove unpalatable to lesser Powers. This consideration, however, is not likely to weigh us down. The graver responsibility is, that in carrying

* Lord Rosebery, "Questions of Empire."

the British name into every land under the sun, it rests upon one and all to keep that name unsullied.

As to the nature of the suzerainty of the foster-mother, one main cause of the marvellous success which has attended the development of the British Empire has been, and is, the "co-operation of the Government with the governed," and, whenever possible, the Imperial Government has encouraged its Colonists to govern themselves. It has been a national principle since 1783 that no taxes should be levied on the Colonies for purely British interests. Where self-government would be premature, the British Government jealously watches over the interests of the governed, and "the deep sense of duty, which we believe to be a special heritage of the English nation, handed down to us from the days of our Puritan ancestors, has made us scorn the idea of holding rule over others solely for our own benefit." *

Great Britain learnt this lesson in a severe school. But she learnt it with Teutonic thoroughness, and, unlike some other colonising nations, she has never forgotten it. In 1775 the American Colonies revolted, because, against the judgment of the best Englishmen of that day, she attempted to tax her American Colonists without their consent. After a bloody and regrettable war, waged with varying military success,

* Professor Ransome.

she lost most of her Colonial Empire in the West, and but for Rodney's victories on the seas she would have lost yet more. As it was, she was obliged to acknowledge the Independence of the American States when she signed the Treaty at the Peace of Versailles in 1783. 'Since then Great Britain has never taken a penny from her Colonies and Dependencies for purposes in which they were not considered to be interested.

The Empire has soared far beyond the limits of the days when the American Colonies wrenched themselves free. To-day the Union Jack covers no fewer than forty-two distinct and independent Governments, besides a number of scattered Dependencies under British protection.* In the case of the self-governing Colonies, the only political tie between them and the Mother Country is the presence in each of a Governor, who represents the Sovereign, and who is advised by a Colonial Prime Minister, in the same manner as the Sovereign is advised by the Premier at home. The Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, Newfoundland, Cape Colony, Natal, and New Zealand, all come under this class.

In our Great Dependency, India, the Sovereign is represented by the Viceroy, whose office practically dates back to 1774, when the three Presidencies of the East India Company were united under one Governor-General. After the Mutiny, by the Act of

* The Colonial Office List, 1900.

August, 1858, the Company's rule ceased, and the government of India was transferred to the Crown.

Sentiment and self-interest alike unite in strengthening the bond between the Mother Country, her Colonies, and her Dependencies, and although the outward sign of union in the self-governing communities is of the slightest description, the centripetal forces have annually grown stronger than the centrifugal. The British Empire is at this time more closely united for all purposes of offence and of defence than at any previous period of its history. Great Britain, at the opening of the twentieth century may well meet the future with a fearless heart, strong in that grand "adamantine Imperial unity, which has been sealed with the lives of its sons."

On several memorable occasions in modern times the Colonies have given practical proof of their willingness, and indeed eager desire, to take their share of the burdens of Empire, and this outside their individual territories. When disorder occurred on their own frontiers, or within their own dominions, whether it has been in former years at the Cape in wars with the natives, or in New Zealand with the Maoris, or in Canada against American or Fenian aggression, or in subduing rebellion, the Colonists have never hesitated to act promptly, whether supported by the Home troops or not, and over and over again they have taken a large and generous view of their connection with the Empire.

During the Indian Mutiny in 1858 Canada raised a regiment of infantry (the 100th), for the service of the Empire, and a movement is in progress for the establishment in the Dominion of a depôt from whence this Imperial regiment may be permanently recruited. And in '1899 the Canadian Minister of Militia set an example to all our great Colonies by obtaining power to place a portion of the Colonial forces at the disposal of the Home Government, for service in any part of the Empire, should the Canadian Government consider such assistance of Imperial advantage.

Nor has Australia been less generous towards the Mother Country. Her Colonies proffered military assistance to Great Britain during the Soudan campaign. The offer of New South Wales was accepted, and a New South Wales contingent landed in Suakin in 1885, and took its share of the fighting side by side with the Home troops. During the same year, when war between Great Britain and Russia appeared imminent, enthusiastic preparations were made by the Colonists, especially in Australasia. Fortifications were erected and armed with modern ordnance, and volunteers enrolled and drilled ; whilst in India several of the native princes offered to sell their jewels, etc., to provide money to assist the British Government, if war were declared with Russia. About the same time Lord Beaconsfield, who was then Prime Minister, arranged that a small

contingent of Indian troops should be thrown into Malta—a political stroke designed to show the world that the military strength of the Empire was not limited to the troops of the Mother-land, but that it possessed in the East a practically inexhaustible reserve of fighting material. Happily, conflict was avoided, but the effect of this war-scare was to strengthen the offensive and defensive power of the Empire.

Since then this loyal readiness on the part of our Colonies to help has been nobly developed. Never before have the nations of the world witnessed so immense, so universal, and so proud a devotion to an Imperial idea as that shown by the British Colonies to the standard of Queen Victoria, raised to vindicate the liberty of her subjects in the Transvaal. The war thrust upon us by the South African Republics in 1899 was intended to disintegrate her late Majesty's dominions in South Africa, and to repudiate her suzerainty. It was a struggle that affected "the whole political system which encircles the globe in a zodiac of distant and diverse dominion, of which the single common symbol is the Crown, and its one living centre was her Majesty herself." * From all parts of the Empire its sons rallied to the Queen's side to fight the Queen's battle. And in the darkest hour of the war, remembrance of the loyalty and chivalrous homage of Dominions and Colonies must

* *Daily Telegraph.*

have comforted the revered Sovereign, as it cheered the heart of England.

For some years past the question of Imperial defence has been engaging attention, and especially the naval requirements of the Empire, since it is upon our Navy that the fabric of Empire rests. Years ago great progress had been made by some of the Australian Colonies in this direction. In 1888 an Act was passed, carrying into effect an arrangement made between the Australian Colonies and the Home Government, by which the former undertook to pay for the maintenance of a special squadron of warships, to be stationed in Australian waters, and to be officered and manned from the British Navy ; an agreement being made that the latter was not to be reduced in consequence of this addition to its numbers.

About the same time the generous offer of several of the independent native princes of India to place their forces at the disposal of the British Government in case of war was partially accepted, and an Imperial force established from this source under British command, a portion of which was employed in the Chinese War of 1900. The magnificent devotion of India throughout the South African War is part of the wonderful manifestation of loyalty already mentioned.

The completion in 1885 of railway communication through British Canadian territory from the Atlantic

to the Pacific, and the establishment of the Canadian line of splendid steamers from Vancouver to Japan, China, and Hong Kong (so built as to be available as armed cruisers in time of war), and the subsidising by Canada and Great Britain of a mail service between the latter, Halifax, and Quebec, subject to the condition that immigrants must be carried for not more than £3 per head, have materially assisted to bind the Empire together. Not less important as a means of strengthening the unity of the Empire is another projected movement for facilitating communication between the different parts of our ocean-united State. Two or three years ago, when Imperial Federation was the topic of the day, a suggestion was made that the telegraph lines connecting Australia with England should be entirely free from possible foreign control in the event of England being engaged in war, and it was suggested that a cable be laid across the Pacific from Australia to Vancouver, where it would connect with the land-lines across Canada, and eventually with the cable from St. John's to England.

At the present time telegrams are sent to Australia by the "Eastern" and "Eastern Extension" Telegraph Companies by cables from England to Gibraltar, thence to Malta and to Alexandria. From Alexandria there are land-lines through Egypt to Suez; from Suez there are cables to Bombay, touching at Aden; from Bombay land-lines to Madras;

and cables from Madras to Singapore, touching at Penang. Up to this point the cables and land-lines are entirely under British control ; for, although they are carried through a part of Egypt, our influence there is now supreme. The cables from Singapore to Australia are not entirely under British control, because they touch for relay at the eastern end of the Island of Java, which is Dutch ; and in the event of war the Dutch might be our enemies, and would cut off communication with Singapore, and hence with England.

After the "Pacific Cable," or the so-called "all British" proposal was made, it was suggested that Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and England should jointly construct, maintain, and work the proposed cable across the Pacific Ocean, etc. To this Great Britain objected, being unwilling to enter into a trading speculation, but offered to pay a large contribution towards the cost of the undertaking. After more than twelve years of negotiation, the project for a Pacific cable linking Australasia, *viâ* Fanning Island with Canada, and *viâ* Canada with the Mother Country, is being put into action (1901). So this splendid scheme is now at last within hope of realisation, and it is probable that before long a line of steamers from Vancouver to New Zealand and Australia will be subsidised. Troops have already been sent to the East through Canada by the above-mentioned British route, and have reached their

destination in a quicker time than they would have done had they passed through the Suez Canal.

Another beneficent agency in further consolidating the Empire by drawing its peoples together will be the Imperial Penny Post scheme so persistently advocated by Mr. Henniker Heaton, M.P., and which came into operation in 1899 in practically all British Colonies and Protectorates, with the exception of Australia and New Zealand. Probably the time is not far distant when letters will be sent to every part of the British Empire at a uniform charge of one penny. A list of the places included in the Imperial Postage Scheme of 1900 is appended (p. 65).

One other manifestation of the spirit of goodwill and unity pervading the Empire may well be quoted here, especially as it serves to show that at home and abroad we are fully sensible of the responsibilities and obligations of Imperial rule.

In 1897 a terrible famine decimated whole districts in India. Unhappily, Indian famines are of frequent recurrence. But this was the most terrible that had been known for years. The Government of India made the most strenuous efforts to grapple with the overwhelming mass of suffering to be relieved and the difficult task of famine administration in the stricken provinces. Very large numbers were employed on the relief works started by Government; but, in spite of all that could be done to help the sufferers, the misery and loss of life were great. But

the tale of actual suffering would have been far greater in former days under native rule, when a famine meant the breaking down of all vestige of social order, and the most frightful ravages were committed. Only a strong central Government could have attempted to deal with this widespread want and destitution, and millions owe their lives, under God's mercy, to the British Raj. The famine in India was made an Imperial concern. The Lord Mayor's Fund opened in London gave an opportunity for the nation at large to show its sympathy in a practical form, and collections were made simultaneously throughout the Empire, each of the Colonies and Dependencies joining in the spontaneous national movement. Over half a million sterling was raised towards the support of the starving people, and the bonds of Empire were drawn closer together in a common and united effort to succour our fellow-subjects.

Distressing as the famine of 1897 was, that of 1900 was yet far worse, and its consequences were more appalling. Again the Government of India had to face the almost superhuman struggle for the preservation of the helpless Indian masses, and even the ceaseless energy and self-sacrificing devotion of Lord Curzon, the Viceroy, and those engaged with him in the task, could only mitigate a fraction of the widespread suffering. Millions died, but the lives of millions were saved by the agency of the Government and private effort. Some dim idea of the

extent of the distress and the labours of the famine administration of 1900 may be had from the fact that at one time the number of persons in receipt of relief was 6,356,000 (the highest number receiving relief at one time in this or any previous Indian famine), or about $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the total population of the areas severely affected by famine. Again the hand of sympathy was stretched out from all parts of the Empire, and substantial aid was sent to the sufferers.

Another dreadful visitation — an outbreak of bubonic plague—afflicted India at the same time, and thousands fell victims to its ravages. These terrible troubles in India, and the anguish of the South African War, made the winter of 1899 a sad and memorable one. But both experiences have been fruitfully utilised by drawing every part of the Empire more closely together. The dark cloud of the war has lifted. We have passed from disaster to success—out of a trouble borne with unflinching fortitude to a victory which we hope may result in lasting peace. And—as a last word—whilst grateful for victory, let us bear in mind the great Duke of Wellington's words to Croker, concerning the glorious battle which enabled us to secure a second Colonial Empire far more splendid than the one we lost. "Waterloo," said the Iron Duke, "did more than any other battle I know of towards the true object of all battles—the peace of the world." To put

down oppression and wrong, to bring about goodwill between the nations, and to keep the peace of the world—this is our threefold mission, and the glory of the British Empire.

“ Clear the land of evil, drive the road and bridge the ford.

Make ye sure to each his own

That he reap where he hath sown,

By the peace among our peoples let men know we serve the Lord ! ” *

Here, then, is our honourable duty. But enough has been said in this short sketch of the building of our Empire to show the end in view. And we have seen something of the strength and affection, as well as the mutual utility, of the bonds which unite the countries under the flag in one close sympathetic union—bonds which it should be the ardent desire of every loyal subject of the Throne, whether born in Great or Greater Britain, to uphold and strengthen, and in which we should be careful to remember we have, one and all, a deep personal concern. Be the memory of the great Queen who blessed and unified the Empire by the wisdom, the genuine love, and righteousness of her rule, an inspiration to us all to follow the same high standard of conduct in our service to the State.

* “ A Song of the English,” by Rudyard Kipling.

APPENDIX.

LIST OF BRITISH POSSESSIONS AND PROTECTORATES WHERE THE
IMPERIAL POSTAGE SCHEME WAS IN USE IN 1900.

Aden.	Jamaica.	New Zealand.*
Ascension.	Johore.	Nigeria (Northern and
Bahamas.	Labuan.	Southern).
Barbados.	Lagos.	Orange River Colony.*
Bermudas.	Leeward Islands, viz. :	St. Helena.
Brit. Cent. Africa.	Antigua.	Sarawak.
Brit. East Africa.	St. Kitts.	Seychelles.
Brit. Guiana.	Nevis.	Sierra Leone.
Brit. Honduras.	Dominica.	Straits Settlements.
Brit. North Borneo.	Montserrat.	Tobago.
Cape of Good Hope.	Virgin Islands.	Transvaal.*
Canada.	Malay States (Fede-	Trinidad.
Ceylon.	rated), viz. :	Turk's Islands.
Cyprus.	Pérak.	Uganda.
Falkland Islands.	Selángor.	Windward Islands,
Fiji.	Negri-Sembilan.	viz. :
Gambia.	Pahang.	Grenada.
Gibraltar.	Malta.	St. Lucia.
Gold Coast Colony.	Mauritius.	St. Vincent.
Hong-Kong.	Natal.	Grenadines.
India.	Newfoundland.	Zanzibar.

* December, 1900.

CHAPTER II.

LEADING DATES.

- A.D. 449-828. The "Coming of the English Conquerors," and the
"Making of England."
783-1042. The Coming of the Danes.
1042-1066. The Coming of the Normans.
1101. Henry I. grants Charter of Liberties to citizens of
London.
1164. Constitutions of Clarendon. Equality before the
Law.
1215. The Great Charter.
1258. The Provisions of Oxford. 12 Commoners sum-
moned to Parliament.
1265. Shire and Borough Representatives invited to
Parliament.
1308. Parliament becomes a Legislative Power.
1315. The struggle for Religious Liberty. Lollards.
1535. The Act of Supremacy. Ecclesiastical independ-
ence of Rome.
1620. Departure of the Pilgrim Fathers.
1628. Petition of Right.
1642-Jan. 16, 1649. Civil War.
1649-1653. Years of the Commonwealth.
1679. Habeas Corpus Act.
1689. Declaration and Bill of Rights. Divine right of
Sovereign renounced.
1772. Slavery declared illegal in England.
1829. Catholic Emancipation Bill.
1834. Slavery abolished in the Colonies.
1837. Accession of Queen Victoria.
1901. Accession of King Edward VII.

“ Of old sat Freedom on the heights,
The thunders breaking at her feet ;
Above her shook the starry lights :
She heard the torrents meet.

“ There in her place she did rejoice,
Self-gather'd in her prophet-mind,
But fragments of her mighty voice
Came rolling on the wind.

“ Then stept she down thro' town and field
To mingle with the human race,
And part by part to men reveal'd
The fullness of her face.

“ Great Mother of majestic works,
From her isle-altar gazing down,
Who, god-like, grasps the triple forks,
And, king-like, wears the crown.

“ Her open eyes desire the truth.
The wisdom of a thousand years
Is in them. May perpetual youth
Keep dry their light from tears ;

“ That her fair form may stand and shine,
Make bright our days and light our dreams,
Turning to scorn with lips divine
The falsehood of extremes ! ”

TENNYSON.

CHAPTER II.

GROWTH OF FREEDOM AND GOOD GOVERNMENT AT HOME.

IT has already been pointed out that the success which has attended the development of the Empire is in part due to the large measure of self-government which Great Britain has given to her Colonies and Dependencies, wherever it could be done with safety, and is shown to be for the welfare of the community at large. And that this is no idle statement is proved by the fact that out of a total British area computed at twelve million square miles, the eleven self-governing British Colonies, including the Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia, cover about seven million square miles.

But there are other and far earlier causes which have led first to the building up and then to the consolidation and extension of the British Empire. These are to be found in the national character and in the insular position of Great Britain.

The English, as we all know, were settlers on, and not the aboriginal population of the British soil.

Another people inhabited the land when history first shows us early Britain—a people to be presently broken up into parts by alien races, a fragment pushed far northward, a fragment thrown into Wales, while the mass was ultimately absorbed in the great Roman Empire, before whose civilisation and Christianity the ruder customs and faith of most of the native Britons were swept away. A Romanised Britain in turn fell, and fell completely before the pitiless destruction wrought by successive invasions of our English forefathers. Once more fragments escaped to the west and north, but there was no absorbing of the mass by the new conquerors. There was left no mass to absorb. The Roman-Briton was uprooted or destroyed. If a small remnant were left in the hands of the new-comers, it was in bitterest slavery. The people, their religion and institutions disappeared. The victorious Northmen occupied their place, and the English race has its beginning in these Germanic tribes and their subsequent settlements.* At a later period the Norman Conquest coloured the people's history ; but the Norman Conquest was union, not annihilation, a widely different process ! So that we see the race begins its existence by migration and settlement, and true to those primitive characteristics, migration and settlement, are popular forces to-day ; moreover, they have contributed the Crown's richest laurels.

* See Dr. Stubbs' "Constitutional History."

Now, these bold Northern sea-rovers could have been no mean sailors, and the national love of adventure, and love of the sea (and consequent ability as seamen, leading to growth of sea-power), find their root here, while the far-reaching, beneficent results of this seafaring instinct in the race cannot be calculated.

The geographical position of England has further favoured her ocean-roving instincts, and has been a source of protection at home. In isolation, brought about by sea-girt shores, there lay safety while the nation was young and immature. After the Norman Conquest England settled down to a long internal preparation, with but little molestation from the outside European Powers. Her very insignificance was a protection. There was nothing, as yet, to provoke international jealousy, no clashing of commercial interests, no high-handed control of the sea. The great maritime genius of the English race was unsuspected.

But a more subtle force than any of the foregoing has helped to build and to consolidate the British Empire, and that is the love of justice, of freedom, and of personal liberty. The love of justice, of free government, and of personal liberty, which are inherent in our race, and which in the dealings of the British Government with its Colonies, and with subject peoples, have in the main characterised its proceedings, and are in a great measure the source of its

strength, were acquired by the British at a time when constitutional freedom and personal liberty were blessings unknown to most of their neighbours living on the Continent of Europe.

Had the British not experienced and appreciated for many years the advantages of a free constitutional government, they would not have extended these privileges to their Colonists. It will be well, therefore, before entering on a general survey of the Empire, to consider how and when constitutional government first took root, grew, and flourished in the Mother Country.

We have seen something of the national character, but more is revealed in the institutions of the people. Now, at the first stage of the race's occupation of the British soil, all existing institutions of the earlier inhabitants disappeared ; the entire religious, social, and administrative order that had prevailed in Britain prior to the settlement of the Anglo-Saxon race was completely swept away. The hardy barbarians had no liking for towns or civilisation ; they were unused to both, and they dealt roughly with them, as with the inhabitants, whom they ruthlessly killed, or pushed into mountainous fastnesses, until the land was conquered.

But the fierce struggle over, and the land won, the new-comer began to show what manner of man he was, and what he wanted. And we find that, free-booter and despoiler though he might be to his enemies, or to those who stood in his way of conquest,

he appears in a very different light when dealing with his tribe.

In the laws and conditions that he framed we read his desire to secure justice, free government, and personal freedom for himself, and for those bound to him by ties of blood. His patriotism was at least as wide as his tribe, and the steady way in which he set himself to establish these three constitutional principles marks another trait in character, while it shows how deeply rooted is the national love for these essentials of a people's happiness.

The new English settlers had been farmers as well as warriors in their northern home, and they betook themselves away from the towns to the great wealds and marshlands, or to the larger open tracts of country, and there made clearings for homesteads, marked out strips of arable land, and ploughed and tilled. Water, wood, and pasturage and pannage for their hogs lay around. Each little community settled itself round its "sacred tree," holding its "mark" as boundary.* And so village life began. Kinship was the earliest tie which held these small commonwealths together, and group after group of families distributed themselves throughout the greater part of the land, each little knot of kinsfolk forming a separate village or township, and jealously tenacious of its independence and freedom. Two classes, the eorls and the ceorls, dwelt in these villages, and already a marked

* See Green's "Short History of the English People."

social difference existed between them, though when the distinction first arose is not known. The eorl held highest rank by birth, and it was his privilege to act as leader and ruler in times of war or peace, if chosen by the village moot. But the choice was a purely voluntary one, and though hereditary reverence was paid him, his legal privileges were no greater than the ceorl's, who was simply a freeman. Sometimes the eorl was also a gesith, *i.e.* he was one of the chief's special war-band, a class known later as the thegns. The same justice was meted to eorl and ceorl by the kinsmen gathered at the moot, where all the smaller questions between the freemen of the village were settled before its headman. Matters of greater importance were brought before the Hundred-moot, which was held monthly, and attended by the reeve and four freemen from every township, as well as by every eorl and thegn who dwelt in the Hundred. And, in addition, there was held twice a year a meeting of the tribe, the Folk-moot, which served the threefold purposes of muster, council, and court. The Folk-moot provided justice between Hundred and Hundred, and decided affairs of greatest moment. It was a dignified and picturesque assemblage. Each separate township of the Hundreds sent its reeve or ealdorman, and four freemen, together with its eorls and thegns. They met in arms. The chief was the sole speaker, but the council signified assent by clashing sword and shield

together. At the Folk-moot the people's vote upon war or peace was taken. In the combination of various tribes to secure greater strength in warring with the Britons, before the land was won, arose the necessity of a strong man who should act as common leader. Out of this sprang the King. In this primitive organisation lies the germ of the British constitution.

By-and-by changes crept in ; the old Folk-moot, in which the freemen played their part, became a purely local court, to be held only in the smaller districts. In the larger kingdoms the King's Witenagemot (the moot of the wise men) had taken its place. In this the humble freeman had no voice. It was composed, as its name implies, of the ealdormen, the greater thegns, and the King's priests. Later on, the Christian bishops stepped into the pagan priest's room.

In the tenth century the kingly power had vastly increased, the thegn, or military noble, had superseded the eorl, and the freeman was little better than a serf.

Gradually the thegnhood, or military aristocracy, grew stronger, more aggressive, less united. It had reached this stage when the Norman Conquest effected a change in the dynasty of England. Then followed the introduction of the feudal military system into England, for which, indeed, the "thegnhood," whose recompense had always been grants from the

folk-lands for personal service, had, in a measure, prepared the people.

Feudalism was a chain of military tenure by which a large army stood in constant readiness. It reached all classes.

Not alone the lands which were allowed to be retained in isolated cases by the older inhabitants of the realm, but every confiscated estate granted by the King to his Norman followers, entailed its holder's services in the field at the King's will ; and the sub-tenancies of the divided holdings, no matter their size or number, were held under like conditions.

All England was regarded as the King's. Either the land was held from him direct, in which case the tenants-in-chief, as such holders were called, did homage to the King himself ; or it was held from the same source, through links of sub-tenancies, down to the meanest villein who ploughed and tilled his lord's land in return for the modest strip he called his own. All along the chain of social descent the act of homage was repeated, the vow of fealty taken, and service of a definite kind exacted. A knight, or mounted warrior, usually of gentle birth, received a knight's fee, *i.e.* sufficient land for his maintenance. In return, the knight declared himself to be the vassal of him who had given the land, and did homage for it. Unarmed and bareheaded he knelt before his lord, and placing his hands in those of his superior, he swore to be faithful and loyal to him for life and death.

Henceforth he was bound to serve his lord in arms when need arose. The scene was re-enacted between himself and those to whom he, in turn, farmed out the land ; here, however, the barter marked him as lord, and those who sought to hold the land of him paid him homage, and became his vassals, pledged to take the field with him at call. At the same time the oath of fealty to the King was imposed, and thus the King's authority was recognised. Repeated in a variety of degrees of service, the sub-infeudation spread to all classes.

Now, such a system was eminently effectual in keeping in order and subjection a newly conquered people, but it was plainly capable of becoming formidable to the Throne were no check placed on the power it gave to the great military over-lords, or barons.

It was by retaining the Anglo-Saxon legal constitution, and adhering to the old judicial and administrative rule, that William I. found a solution of the threatened difficulty. Under the hereditary constitution the reins of justice were centred in the King as Head of the nation, and William held them with a firm grasp. Some changes there were ; the Witenagemot now became known as the Great Council, and its members were the tenants-in-chief, *i.e.* those who held their lands immediately from the King, and did homage to him.

The Royal Charter, granted in 1101 by Henry I.,

the Lion of Justice, to the citizens of London on his accession, marks a new epoch in the country's struggle for liberty. In effect it was a precedent for the Great Charter ; at the same time it stands as the first direct limitation set on that feudal despotism which weighed so heavily on the people at large.

In 1164 the equality of all men before the law was established by the "Constitutions of Clarendon." Up to this time the clergy had enjoyed special privileges, but in that year they were made amenable to the civil courts.

The process by which England freed herself was a very gradual one. A step gained here, a new oppression to be fought there. In the year 1215, at a supreme moment of their history, the people achieved a momentous victory in the protracted struggle, the gains of which remain a precious heritage to all time.

In 1215 the barons of England compelled King John to grant to the nation at large the rights which they claimed for themselves. Henceforth "the boon of free and unbought justice was for all, but a special provision protected the poor. The means of actual livelihood were to be left even to the worst," says Green. This great Charter of the People was signed by the King on an island in the Thames, called Runnymede, between Staines and Windsor. One original copy of it is still to be seen in the British



THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, WESTMINSTER.

*Photo by London Stereoscopic
and Photographic Co.*

Museum. "No freeman," says this priceless ancient document, "shall be seized or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or in any way brought to ruin: we (that is, the King) will not go against any man nor send against him, save by legal judgement of his peers (equals), or by the Law of the Land." Another article of the Great Charter runs—"To no man will we sell, or delay, or deny, right or justice." Quite as important is the provision against the lawless exactions imposed by John and his immediate predecessors. The clause in the Charter providing against this abuse is the groundwork of our constitutional system. "No scutage or aid," it says, "shall be imposed in our realm save by the common council of the realm." To this great council the prelates and greater barons were to be summoned by special writ, and all tenants-in-chief through the sheriffs and bailiffs, at least forty days before. Our whole Parliamentary life rests on this definition, which created a national right.* The difficulty was to secure the actual working of the Charter, since no man dare trust the King's word, and twenty-five barons were chosen by the general baronage to form a permanent council to enforce these provisions. John was furious at this last step. "They have given me five and twenty over-kings," he cried, full of a mighty wrath.

But the Great Charter, the basis of English liberty, was signed nevertheless. It had for its precedent, as

* See Green's "Short History of the English People."

we have said, the Charter of Henry I., but whereas Henry's Charter left much to "traditional rights," and was vague and incomplete, the Charter now won from John secured to the people of the realm as written law all that the earlier concessions had promised, but had failed to make good.

Again and again attempts were made by the Crown to escape from the provisions of the Great Charter, and many weary struggles had to be encountered before the present freedom was gained.

In 1258 the barons once more met in arms under the steadfast lead of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, the champion of English liberty. This time it was to coerce King Henry III. into appointing a committee to arrange terms for the reform of the State. Finally, by the "Provisions of Oxford," framed to secure the right administration of the realm, it was agreed that the great Council of the Barons should assemble thrice a year, whether summoned by the King or not, and it was enacted that "the Commonalty shall elect twelve honest men who shall come to the Parliament to treat of the wants of the King and of his kingdom." * Here we see the commencement of the power of the Commons.

Since the early tribal days, and after the ancient Folk-moot changed the character of its assemblage, the country had been governed by the King, his powerful nobles, and the great ecclesiastics. The

* Green.

admission of the Commons to a share in the legislature was a memorable advance in its constitutional development. Nor was it long before the Commons gained a further foothold. After the great battle of Lewes, in which the Earl of Leicester defeated the King, a new Parliament was convened in January, 1265, and to it the Earl's writ summoned two knights from every shire or county, and, for the first time, two citizens from every borough to sit beside the nobles and the ecclesiastics in the Country's Parliament—an event to be remembered, this being the first time, if we omit those early Folk-moots, that the people enjoyed any general representation in Parliament.

It was not until 1308, however, that Parliament became a legislative power, the consent of which was necessary to a measure in order to constitute a law, and it was not until 1377 that the Commons elected their first Speaker, Peter de la Mere.

Meanwhile, another mighty issue was approaching. About this time, in 1315, with the rise of the Lollards, a religious sect who contended for the privilege of an open Bible written in the language of the people, commenced the great struggle for religious liberty which lasted until the 19th century, a movement destined to exercise an important influence on the early Colonies of Great Britain. Out of the widespread religious and social dissatisfaction engendered by the corrupt spirit of the times, and expressed by the

so-called Lollardry, the Reformation slowly emerged. Its leaders were Wyclif in England in 1360, Huss in Bohemia in 1405, Savonarola in Italy in 1498, Luther in Germany in 1517, Zwingli in Switzerland in 1519, and Calvin in France in 1529. Long the fierce contest raged, but the open attack made on existing evils which had crept into the system and doctrine of Christendom never flagged. Infamous Acts and bitterest persecution alike failed to stem the tide of the people's struggle for religious liberty.

Men felt that the simplicity of the early Christian faith had been obscured by the mysticism of the mediæval schoolmen. Gross superstitions and abuses prevailed. Vicious practices were undermining the great monastic bodies. In short, the Church had sunk to its lowest ebb, and men clamoured for reform—reform of Prelate and Priest first, and a religious revival of the flock would follow. Underlying all these causes of discontent, and most active of all in fomenting the national irritation, were the exactions of the Papacy. Its taxations and claims had become so grievous a burden as to provoke the saying, "God gave his sheep to be pastured, not to be shaven and shorn," and more than one protest was sent to the Papal Court by the Good Parliament of Edward III.'s reign. One of these remonstrances stated that the Pope levied five times the amount of taxes exacted by the Crown. It was not the voice of the people, however, that finally brought about the great change in the

character of the Church of the land, and her separation from the see of Rome.

The Church of England found its organisation at the hands of Theodore of Tarsus (669-690). He it was who gathered together the fresh elements of Christianity diffused by Augustine, Paulinus, and others, and united them to a common centre, Canterbury, of which See he was Archbishop. The earlier British Church was but a tradition, its isolated fragments unknown; Woden and Thunder, the gods of our heathen forefathers, had for the time hidden the religion of Christ.* But only for a time. The sixth century brought Augustine and his fellow-missionaries, and its close saw the conversion of Ethelbert and his warriors. The great work had begun, and England became a Christian land. Such remnant as was left of the earlier British Church was merged in the English Church during the Anglo-Saxon period. The Church of the land suffered no change at the Norman Conquest, and the Reformation marks the most momentous event of her history.

The separation from Rome was precipitated by Henry VIII.'s quarrel with the Pope on the question of Catherine's divorce, and the national jealousy of Papal jurisdiction, which had more than once shown itself in earlier stages of the country's history, became a ready weapon to his hand when Henry claimed for himself the Headship of the English

* Green.

Church, and refused to acknowledge the Pope's supremacy in spiritual matters.

The Act of Supremacy, as it was called, was established by law in 1535. It secured to the nation at large complete independence from a foreign court. By it all power, ecclesiastical and temporal, was centred in the English Throne, as supreme Head of the Nation. But the settlement of religious differences was doomed to be a burning question long after the Reformation era had dawned. Its progress was to be marked on all sides by the bitterest cruelty and intolerance.

The struggle for liberty of conscience and freedom of worship had to be carried on through a tortuous maze of fanaticism and bigotry which shamed the very name of religion. Spiritual despotism was as easy a snare to Protestantism as it had been to the Papacy. In striving for outer uniformity in worship the party in power adopted the sternest repressive measures, and hesitated at no persecution of those who differed from its own tenets.

Such harsh treatment drove the sufferers to seek refuge in other lands, and emigration for the sake of religious freedom began. Men exiled themselves to the wilds of the New World rather than endure the persecution that threatened their worship at home. They built up new homes across the Atlantic, and religious and political causes in turn contributed to the planting of Colonies. The founding of the New

England States arose out of the struggle of this time for religious freedom. It happened that in 1603 the Presbyterian and Puritan parties, opposed as they were to each other in doctrine, were yet agreed upon one point, and that was in their abhorrence of one Robert Brown and his followers. The Brownists, as they were called after their leader, were hated because they elected to be Separatists, and withdrew from attendance in any congregation. The Puritan Parliament passed a statute against the sect, and its members became a mark for persecution. A little band was driven forth from Lincolnshire, and escaped across the sea to Holland. For thirteen years the fugitives lived at Leyden, where they were free to follow their convictions. Then they resolved to quit Holland and seek the shores of the New World, and there found new homes for themselves and their children, where religion and liberty would be untrammelled. Buoyed up by stern religious enthusiasm, they would not let the story of the privations and suffering of the little colony planted in Virginia thirteen years earlier deter them from putting forth into the unknown. They had returned to Southampton, and now with some co-religionists — a company of about a hundred in all—they prepared once more for exile. In 1620 two small vessels set sail for America, carrying the first shiploads of English emigrants who went forth for the sake of religion. One vessel only, the famous *Mayflower*,

made the long stormy voyage across the ocean, the other put back into port. The pathos of that anguished cry, "Farewell, dear England!" as the last faint outlines of the cliffs faded, shows how hard it was to tear themselves from their English homes.

Sorely distressed and weakened by the long passage, and scantily supplied with provisions, the little company of the Pilgrim Fathers touched the dreary shores of Massachusetts in mid-winter. The spot at which they landed they called Plymouth, in memory of the English port at home. Fourteen years before, King James had granted a Charter for the colonisation of Virginia. Previous attempts to plant Virginia had failed. The last settlement at Jamestown had survived, but only after terrible experiences. The Pilgrim Fathers suffered no less severe a trial, and nearly half of the little band perished before the first six months were over. Other exiles for the sake of religion went out from England and joined the first settlers in Massachusetts. The Massachusetts Company was formed under the direction of the Puritan party in England, and thenceforth the Colony was fed by the emigrants who left our shores that they might be free to worship in their own way. In 1630 John Winthrop sailed with eight hundred of his co-religionists to settle at Boston, and as the wave of religious intolerance swept through England, Massachusetts and the New England States became

a kind of "city of refuge" for the perturbed Puritans. But a city of refuge for the Puritans only. Religious differences were no more tolerated in Boston than at home, and the exiled Puritan, who considered himself a martyr for religious liberty, had no idea of extending religious liberty to those holding views diverse from his own.

The Colony of Maryland planned by Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, but actually founded by his son, the second Lord Baltimore, was the outcome of an idea to provide a place of refuge for Roman Catholics who then suffered from many disabilities. So, in a sense, Maryland also was the home of emigrants for religion, though all sects were welcomed. Again, the Colony of New Jersey was mainly peopled by Scottish families who had fled from religious persecution at home. But the largest number of emigrants who forsook home and country and crossed the sea for the sake of religious liberty belonged to the Society of Friends, popularly known as Quakers, under William Penn. Scorned by all, the Quakers were a marked people, and unpopular to the last degree. No Colony welcomed them. They were whipped, fined, imprisoned, and even killed. Therefore William Penn, their great and noble-minded leader, founded for them the Colony of Pennsylvania, and sent out his first Quaker emigrants in 1681. The Colony was, however, open to all comers, and Colonists of all creeds were welcome to settle.

It was a bad start, this going forth from England of shiploads of Nonconformists and political refugees with feelings of bitterness ; and who can doubt that the remembrance of the story of fugitives who went into exile for religion lay at the root of the discontent which the New England States felt towards the Mother Country ? From the first there was a sense of grievance and estrangement, and in the end the American Colonies revolted, and having obtained their independence, became the United States of America.

But we have carried the issue of the religious struggle beyond the limits of this chapter. Let us turn back to England herself and show how the great contest for freedom at home was at last won. We have followed the struggle into the first quarter of the seventeenth century. All these years the Great Charter of 1215, the basis of the people's liberty, remained the expression of the nation's demand for the personal liberty of the subject and for other cherished rights, but the rulers of England had not always been careful of its obligations. Its conditions had been violated over and over again. The old liberties had been trampled on, and freedom restricted ; rights conferred at one time had again been withdrawn. In no reign had it suffered more contumely than in that of Henry VIII. His successors continued to tamper with it, but under the Stuarts the encroachments on English constitutional liberty became more grievous still.

The patience of the nation was coming to an end. An immense wave of emigration set in. Failure of the long-protracted struggle for that freedom they held so dear was nerving men to great issues. All hope of religious and secular freedom at home seemed broken, and two great movements proclaimed the general dissatisfaction. Either men wrenched themselves from all the old ties of home and country and sought the New World, where they would at least enjoy freedom, or they prepared for resistance.

This showed itself in the action of a young Buckingham squire, John Hampden by name, whom history shows to have been a man of lofty character and great ability. In 1627 he had protested against a forced loan levied by the Crown, and in 1636 he repeated his refusal to contribute to a like demand.

The "Ship Money" which Hampden now refused to pay, as he declared it to be illegal, was an old tax levied in former days upon the ports and maritime towns only, for the equipment of the Navy in cases of sudden emergency. In 1634 Charles I. revived it to secure a loan, and arbitrarily imposed it on the kingdom at large, without the consent of Parliament. Such a tax, levied solely at the pleasure of the King, was a breach of the "fundamental laws" of the realm. It paved the way for an utter upheaval of the Constitution, which directly provided for the consent of Parliament before any tax might

be imposed in the land. Acquiescence in its imposition involved important, nay vital, consequences to the leading constitutional principle.

Hampden's firm stand for the national right stirred the land and roused England to a sense of the danger threatening to overthrow its freedom. Earlier than this, the third Parliament of Charles I. had presented to the King its famous Petition of Right, praying him to see that the laws should be obeyed, and justice be done to his subjects. The King at first gave an evasive answer, but in June, 1628, the Petition was accorded, and became a statute.

The Petition was but a step. The germs of a mighty revolution were floating with fast-increasing speed towards one tremendous issue. Men burning under a sense of injustice and wrong, and maddened by heaped-up disappointment in matters wherein they were most sensitive, could show but small forbearance once the strong elements of personal reverence and loyalty to the Crown were shattered. The arbitrary conduct of Charles I. might not pass unchallenged at so critical a stage as perchance it would have done in earlier reigns. Each successive usurpation of its liberties fomented the excited temper of the nation, until at last the civil wars broke out in terrible earnest—the sad monument to an accumulated dynastic despotism and a people's despair.

The establishment of the Commonwealth under

Cromwell was a startling landmark in the nation's history. It discovered a new "constitutional proportion, in making Parliament stronger than the Crown itself, and the House of Commons the essential part of government," conditions which, though modified at the Restoration of Charles II., have yet left their lesson. With the accession of Charles II. the old constitutional order, interrupted by the civil wars, was restored, the influence of the Crown over Parliament reasserted, and, it must be confessed, the old tamperings and encroachments on the subject's freedom went on much as before.

In 1679 the "Habeas Corpus" Act was passed, in order that an end might be put to the unconstitutional practices of the Crown, and for the "better securing the liberty of the subject." By this Act no untried prisoner can be detained in prison, but must be brought up for trial without unnecessary delay.

This Act (founded on the Common Law) ranks next in importance to Magna Charta. In 1689 another point in the great conflict was won for the nation by the Declaration and Bill of Rights. This was an important pronouncement and law made by the Lords and Commons of Great Britain after the Revolution of 1689, by which the dispensing power of the Crown was abolished, the rights and liberties of the subject were declared, and the succession was settled on Mary (daughter of James II., who was forced to abdicate in consequence of his tyrannical

conduct) and on William of Orange, her husband. By this Act all claim to the Throne by Divine right on the part of a Sovereign of Great Britain was for ever abolished.

Thus the English people were enjoying constitutional government and personal liberty at a time when these blessings were rare amongst the nations. The last two hundred years since that date have seen a continuous, but in the main self-restrained, advance on the part of the British people towards a larger development and ever larger enjoyment of constitutional freedom and of ordered liberty. The result is that, under the wise and beneficent government of our late beloved Sovereign, Britons enjoyed more perfect liberty than the citizens of any other State. Moreover, this has been obtained under an unbroken monarchical succession since 1689, without those violent and destructive political and social convulsions which other countries possessing any measure of freedom have had to suffer.

The religious element in the struggle for freedom had endured the greatest suffering, and it was destined to be the longest in gaining the victory. Its last fetters were broken in 1829, when the Bill which admitted Roman Catholics to Parliament, and, with very few exceptions, to all offices under the Crown, was passed by both Houses.

Although the laws of the land acknowledged the freedom of the subject, and Britons had long been

in the enjoyment of personal liberty, a sad blot in the form of slavery still stained the country's legislation. It was not until 1772 that it was finally declared by a decision of the Court of Queen's Bench that slavery could not exist in England. And then the measure for its abolition had to be carried in the teeth of the fiercest opposition from those who profited by the nefarious practice. The iniquitous trading in humanity, which our earlier forefathers had discarded as unworthy of free men, had unhappily revived. The greed of some, the indifference of others, stimulated, or, at least, allowed the unnatural traffic, even in free England. And, to her shame, she had planted the degrading and wholly unchristian system in her Colonies. Happily, a purer and more unselfish spirit arose in her midst. A nobler humanity threw itself heart and soul into the breach to repair this terrible wrong, never ceasing its efforts until an Act was passed which came into effect in August, 1834, for the abolition of slavery throughout the British Colonies. On that day 770,280 slaves obtained their liberty. This was followed by an act of rightful expiation on the part of the nation. A sum of £20,000,000 was voted by Parliament as compensation to the persons who formerly held slaves, and who were now deprived of their services. It was the people's acknowledgment of their guilt in the past. Since then Great Britain has spent millions of money in putting down the Slave Trade throughout the

world. There has been no attempt made to evade our obligation in this matter, and we are becoming more and more sensible of our responsibility in dealing with the native races of annexed territories. It is the glory of the British Empire—now handed down to our illustrious Sovereign, King Edward VII.—that its government aims at providing security from misrule and injustice for the poorest of its coloured subjects. Wherever Britons have settled, the great fundamental principles of the State, civil and religious liberty, and constitutional freedom have been introduced into the new countries so far as has been practicable, and as the general interest and well-being of the Dependencies over which they rule would permit.

The foregoing is but the briefest outline of some of the most memorable footholds of the race in the long struggle for freedom at Home. Little by little the grand impelling principle came to vigorous maturity, though the struggle itself was spread over six centuries. An intense longing after freedom, an unconquerable determination to secure this priceless boon as their own and their children's birthright, runs like a thread throughout the history of the English people, while it underlies their success as a world-wide ruling power. The struggle endured by ourselves has led to one general principle in the relations we maintain with dependent or semi-dependent communities, and in the main we have stuck to it with fidelity ; this principle is, that "it is not by

the extension of our Empire that its permanence is to be secured, but by the character of the British rule in the territories already committed to our care, and by practically demonstrating that we are as willing to respect the rights of others as we are capable of maintaining our own."

The love of freedom has led us by slow steps to self-government, and self-government has made us take careful thought how best to promote the greatest happiness of the greatest number.

Constant improvement is the life of nations as well as of individuals. Stagnation is death. It is difficult, even for those who are well acquainted with recent legislation, and with the social and educational movements of the day, to appreciate, at their full value, the honest efforts made during the last forty or fifty years by the British State and nation to improve the lot, increase the knowledge, raise the moral tone, and add to the happiness of the toiling masses. No one would be so foolish as to assert that the British Constitution is perfect, or that its institutions and laws are incapable of improvement ; but, speaking broadly, in no country, and under no form of government, are more equitable laws, purer justice, and more righteous administration to be found, and in none are personal rights and liberties more respected, than in the United Kingdom ; and in no country do the rich tax themselves, either voluntarily or by law, as heavily for the benefit of the poor as in Great Britain.

It is no idle boast, but an incontrovertible fact, that no country and no city in the world can show anything like the amount of voluntary self-sacrificing work in the interests of the poor, the suffering, and the sick, which is to be found within the British Isles or its metropolis. Let those who doubt this produce a list of charitable, philanthropic, and religious undertakings, equal in number, carried out in as devoted a spirit, and supported by as large voluntary contributions, within the confines of a single city, as that to be found in the pages of the well-known and most useful little work, entitled "*The London Charities.*" The amount of money each year *voluntarily* subscribed in support of Metropolitan religious and philanthropic societies, and given in aid of the London poor (exclusive of British or Imperial charities), is about £2,500,000, and an equal additional sum is spent annually on the poor through the machinery of the poor law.

"London contains (says Sir Henry C. Burdett) a greater number of charities of all kinds than any other city in the world, and the combined revenue of these charities is so great as to stagger the uninitiated when brought face to face with the total for the first time. The income of the greater charities which have their headquarters in London amounts to £7,000,000 sterling per annum, a sum which exceeds the total revenue of all but three of the British Colonies, *i.e.* New South Wales, Victoria, and Canada,



VIEW OF THE CITY FROM THE NEW TOWER BRIDGE. *Photo by Russell & Sons,
London*

at the present time," and is larger than the entire annual revenue of either Greece, Denmark, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, or any of the smaller States of Germany.

On the other hand, our rich men are paupers compared with those of America. The incomes of our landed classes, owing to agricultural depression, have been cut down 25, 50, and even 75 per cent. Their responsibilities remain the same. A county magnate, as well as the humblest squire, has to build and repair farmhouses, cottages, fences, and roads. He is expected to head every subscription list, to take the lead in every philanthropic movement within the district, to assist his church, and to be the general almoner of the distressed of the neighbourhood. The American millionaire is the absolutely irresponsible master of his own wealth. He possesses no great country mansion or estate, nor has he any hereditary position to support.

Then again, there is no other country in the world where so much unpaid public work is undertaken and conscientiously carried out by the rich and educated and the leisured classes as in England. Take the working machinery of our ancient Constitution. The members of the Houses of Lords and Commons, year after year, perform the legislative work of the session, which is often of a most monotonous and laborious kind, without any remuneration, and, in the majority of cases, without the remotest

prospect of personal reward; nor can they, nor do they desire to, repay themselves for their exertions in ways of a dubious character not unknown to paid members of some foreign legislatures. Except in the case of the judges, and of a few stipendiary magistrates, justice throughout Great Britain is administered by unpaid men, and the whole work of local government, whether it be in the municipality, the county, the district, or the parish, is undertaken without any hope of other reward than that of the approval of a good conscience and the honour of serving King and country. The same remarks are true of the administrators of the Poor Law and of the unpaid officers of over 200,000 volunteers. That the ladies of England also are not backward in rendering useful unpaid service to their country and to suffering humanity is shown by the thousands of women of rank, education, and refinement who have banded themselves together in philanthropic organisations for the benefit of their fellow-creatures.

But it may be asked, "Is not the monarchy—the maintenance of Royalty—a constant drain on the people?" This is one of those matters in which actual facts ought to be known and understood by every one in the realm. At all times it should be the effort of the patriot, the statesman, and the educationalist to cast the most searching light on the government, laws, and institutions of the country, and, without concealing any defects from its rays, to take care

that no prejudice nor lack of knowledge shall disturb the judgment of the rising generation in their estimate of the value of the institutions under which they live, as compared with those of foreign countries. At present a considerable amount of ignorance in regard to all matters appertaining to the government of the country exists, not only amongst portions of the working classes, but amongst some whose social position and education would naturally lead one to expect to find in them a more accurate knowledge. For instance, it is believed by many who should know better that the State Churches of Great Britain are paid out of the national taxes ; whereas no British Chancellor of the Exchequer, in presenting the annual Budget, ever asks the House of Commons to pass a vote for the payment of bishops' salaries, or of the stipends of the clergy of the Established Churches of England or of Scotland, except in the case of Army and Navy and Prison Chaplains.

Again, it is not uncommon to find persons, otherwise well educated, who are unaware that the amount of the late Queen's Civil List was fixed by arrangement between Parliament and the Crown when the lands belonging to the latter were; at the beginning of Her Majesty's reign, taken over by the Government for the benefit of the nation. No alteration can, therefore, with justice be made in the amount paid by the nation to the Crown without the consent of the Sovereign, or, if the Crown objects, without first

handing back to it the valuable estates of which it permitted itself to be deprived in consideration of the annual payment of a fixed sum of money. If this fact were more generally known, the number of those who raise their voices against what they consider to be the extravagant payment of the Crown by the nation would be considerably diminished, for the honest among them would feel that justice and self-respect demanded that the nation should either adhere good-humouredly to its bargain, or hand back the property received. As a matter of fact, the Crown has lost by the exchange, for, notwithstanding the present depression in agriculture, the lands given up by the Crown bring in annually to the nation more than the latter returns in exchange, and the country has benefited to the extent of £385,000.

The subject of Queen Victoria's Civil List was handled with great clearness by Mr. Gardiner. He wrote :—"The income of the Sovereign was formerly derived from lands held by him, and he also received into his Treasury sums of money voted by Parliament for the public revenue, and raised by taxes from the people. The whole of this public revenue, with the income from the Crown lands also, is now paid into the Public Exchequer as one common fund, called the 'Consolidated Fund,' out of which all the national expenses of government, army, and navy are paid. From this fund it was agreed by Parliament at the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign that she should

receive every year an income of £385,000. This income is called the 'Civil List.' The Crown lands yield to the public revenue yearly £420,000, *so that nothing is paid out of the taxes for the cost of the Sovereign.* The whole expenses of the Sovereign and of the Royal Family cost less than $\frac{1}{500}$ part of the national income."

In the year 1894 Lord Playfair made an interesting calculation as to the comparative cost of Royalty and Republicanism. He found that "the maintenance of all the English Royal Family costs under one penny per head of the population of the United Kingdom; whereas the simple *election* of the President of the United States, independently of his salary and perquisites, or of the payments of senators and representatives" (who are unpaid in Great Britain), "costs thirty pence per head of the population of the United States." *

Compare, too, the condition of the British artisan and labouring man with that of their brothers in either of these two classes on the Continent. No one who has any knowledge on the subject can deny that in the matters of personal liberty, freedom of action, protection by law, hours of labour, impartial justice, wages, habitation, and food, the former are in a much better position than the latter.

Take another and stronger illustration, the administration of our law courts. The purity of British justice

* "Civic Life: its Duties and Responsibilities," by A. Gardiner.

is proverbial. Under the Union Jack justice and government are to be found in their cheapest and purest form. Our legislators, lord - lieutenants, aldermen, county, municipal, and even district and parish councillors are unpaid, whilst never has the faintest whisper of corruption in the transaction of business been raised against our modern public men. We have only to turn to the terrible record of deaths carried out under lynch law in the United States to prove how little confidence the citizens even of that Republic place in their administration of justice. In 1896 the Hon. C. J. Parker, Judge of the United States District Court, in the pages of the *North American Review*, warned his countrymen that during the six previous years there had been 43,903 homicides in the States, an average of 7,317 a year. In the same time he says there were 723 legal executions and 1,118 lynchings. The appalling total of 10,500 homicides was reached in 1895 in the States, or 875 per month! During the same period the number in Great Britain was 289, or 24 per month. The number of legal executions in Great Britain in 1895 was 18, and of course there were no lynchings. The phenomenal amount of homicidal violence which exists in the United States is, in the opinion of leading Americans, due not so much to defective legislation as to mal-administration of the laws.

Judge Parker wrote, "The cause of this condition

grows out of the indifference of the people to the enforcement of the law. It arises from corrupt verdicts, begotten by frauds and perjuries. It arises from the undue exercise of influence, either monetary, social, or otherwise, so that juries are carried away from the line of duty." It is the fear lest juries or judges should be bribed or terrified which drives mobs in the United States, to take the law into their own hands. It is, however, only right to add that a public opinion adverse to lynchings, which principally, though not exclusively, take place in the southern portions of America, is making itself strongly felt in several States.

The sentiment of patriotism, when founded on the love of home and of free institutions, and when unalloyed by admixture with the baser qualities of arrogance and of vainglory, is a source of untold strength to a nation. Such a sentiment cannot be ignored with impunity. It cannot be forced by educators or statesmen, nor is it capable of being produced at the will of the tyrant. It is a delicate plant which refuses to be cultivated in uncongenial soil ; but given the proper conditions of growth, it is in the power of the cultivator either by neglect to starve it into atrophy, or by care and proper nurture to cause it to bring forth fruit so that it shall repay him a hundredfold for his toil and attention. British patriotism has led to many a gallant and unselfish deed by field and flood, as well as in the senate, in

the hospital, in the laboratory, in the study, in the workshop, and in the home. True patriotism will never be afraid to confess national failings, but, on the contrary, will denounce them in season and out of season, and never rest until they cease to stain the fair fame of the beloved Motherland. Let this valuable sentiment be guided into healthy directions, where its progress, far from being a source of danger to humanity, may, by stimulating the energies and purifying the motives of the sons and daughters of Britain, be the means of bringing untold blessings to millions of the world's inhabitants.

History will record how faithfully Queen Victoria governed as a constitutional monarch. How she cherished the freedom of the people as a thing most sacred, and bound the heart of the nation in deepest loyalty to the Throne. She ruled over an Empire vaster than the world has known, yet no parallel can be found for a union between Sovereign and subjects so intimate and so sympathetic as the union between Queen Victoria and her people. By the death of Queen Victoria on January 22nd, 1901, after a long and glorious reign of more than sixty-three years, Her Majesty's eldest son, now King Edward the Seventh, succeeded to the Throne.

CHAPTER III.

LEADING DATES.

- A.D. 449-600. Germanic invasion and settlement.
- 783. First hostile appearance of the Danes.
 - 832. Appearance in the Thames of the Danish sea-rovers.
 - 875. Alfred's victory over Vikings.
 - 897. Alfred creates a navy, and defeats Danes.
 - 965. Edgar claims to be lord of the ocean surrounding Britain.
- 1042-1066. The coming of the Normans.
- 1190. Richard I. carries the fleet into foreign waters.
 - 1191. Limassol captured.
- 1213-1227. Proposed French invasion frustrated by navy—
Fécamp, Damme, Sandwich (victories).
- 1340. Sluys (victory).
 - 1350. Winchelsea (victory).
 - 1387. Earl of Arundel's victory over Flemish fleet.
 - 1405. Near Milford Haven (victory).
 - 1416. Harfleur (victory).
 - 1457. Sandwich taken and plundered by French.
 - 1459. The Earl of Warwick captures Spanish and Genoese fleets in the Downs.
 - 1492. Columbus discovers the New World of the West.
 - 1494. Treaty of Tordesillas.
- 1497-1498. Da Gama finds the sea-road to India.
- 1497. John Cabot discovers Newfoundland.
- 1485-1509. Henry VII., the "Founder of the Navy."
- 1488. *Royal Harry* built.
- 1509-1547. Henry VIII. and the navy.
- 1512. Trinity House established, and the Navy Office appointed.

- 1512. Bay of Biscay (indecisive action between French and English).
- 1553. Chancellor reaches Muscovy.
- 1558-1603. The great sea-duel under Elizabeth.
- 1576. Frobisher's voyage to Labrador.
- 1577-1580. Drake sails round the world.
- 1585. Davis discovers Davis' Straits.
- 1585. Drake on the Spanish coast.
- 1587. He burns the Spanish fleet at Cadiz.
- 1587. Performs a like operation at Lisbon.
- 1588. Defeat of the first Spanish Armada.
- 1589. Drake attacks Vigo (victory).
- 1589. Drake sacks Corunna.
- 1591. Howard's expedition to the Azores—Sir Richard Grenville and the little *Revenge* (defeat).
- 1596. Cadiz (second Armada destroyed).
- 1603. Peace with Spain.
- 1617. Guiana (Sir Walter Raleigh takes St. Thomé).
- 1621-1625. Struggle between English and Portuguese (Ormuz surrenders).
- 1625. Cadiz (defeat).
- 1649. Frigates said to have been first built.
- 1651. Navigation Laws passed.
- 1652 (Sept.). Dover (Blake defeats De Ruyter, but suffers heavy loss).
- 1652 (Nov.). Dover (Blake defeated by Van Tromp).
- 1653. Portland (victory).
- 1653. North Foreland (victory).
- 1653. Coast of Holland (victory).
- 1653-1658. Cromwell's navy.
- 1654. Peace of Westminster. Dutch agree to salute English Flag.
- 1655. Blake in the Mediterranean.
- 1655. Jamaica taken by Penn and Venables.
- 1656. Blake's victory off Cadiz.
- 1657. Blake's victory off Santa Cruz, Teneriffe.
- 1660. Navigation Act.
- 1664-1667. Our second war with Holland.
- 1664. Duke of York destroys Bordeaux fleet.
- 1665. He defeats Dutch off Harwich.
- 1665. Earl of Sandwich takes twelve men-of-war and two Indian ships.

- 1666. Four days' sea fight (Monk withdraws).
- 1666. North Foreland (victory).
- 1667. De Ruyter in the Thames (defeat).
- 1667. Sheerness taken by the Dutch.
- 1667. Peace of Breda.
- 1671. Sir Edward Spragg destroys twelve Algerine warships.
- 1672-1674. Our third war with Holland.
- 1672. Battle of Sole Bay, or Southwold (victory).
- 1673. Three engagements off coast of Holland (two victories).
- 1674. Second Peace of Westminster. Dutch agree again to salute English Flag.
- 1690-1697. The struggle with France.
- 1690. Beachy Head (defeat).
- 1692. Louis plans to invade England.
- 1692. Battle of La Hogue (victory).
- 1693. St. Vincent (defeat).
- 1695. Louis renews his project for invading England.
- 1697. Peace of Ryswick.
- 1702. Admirals Benbow and Du Casse off Cartagena (indecisive).
- 1702. Vigo (victory).
- 1704. Gibraltar taken.
- 1704. Malaga (victory).
- 1706. Ostend (victory).
- 1706. Cartagena (Spain) taken and retaken.
- 1708. Minorca taken.
- 1708. Mediterranean (Sir John Leake takes sixty French provision-ships).
- 1713. Treaty of Utrecht, "England the only sea-power." *
- 1718. Byng's victory off Cape Passaro.
- 1720. Peace with Spain.
- 1739. War declared with Spain.
- 1739. Porto Bello surrenders to Vernon.
- 1740-1744. Anson's voyage round the world.
- 1740-1748. War of the Austrian succession.
- 1741. Cartagena, S. America (defeat).
- 1741. Santiago de Cuba (defeat).
- 1744. Toulon (undecided).
- 1746. Madras surrenders to Labourdonnais.

* See Navy League.

- 1747. Finisterre (Lord Anson's victory).
- 1747. Finisterre (Lord Hawke's victory).
- 1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
- 1755. Newfoundland (Boscawan's victory).
- 1756. Loss of Minorca (Admiral Byng retires to Gibraltar).
- 1756-1763. Seven Years' War.
 - 1757. Cape Françoise (victory).
 - 1758. St. Cas (defeat).
 - 1758. Cherbourg expedition successful.
- 1758-1759. East Indies (Admiral Pocock defeats French).
 - 1759. Lagos, Portugal (Boscawen's victory).
 - 1759. Quiberon Bay (Lord Hawke's victory).
 - 1762. Havana (victory).
 - 1762. Manila (victory).
 - 1763. Treaty of Paris (England mistress of the sea).
- 1768-1771. Cook's voyage in the *Endeavour*.

THE REVENGE.

A BALLAD OF THE FLEET.

- “ At Flores in the Azores Sir Richard Grenville lay,
And a pinnace like a flutter'd bird, came flying from far away :
‘ Spanish ships of war at sea ! we have sighted fifty-three ! ’
Then sware Lord Thomas Howard : ‘ ’Fore God I am no coward ;
But I cannot meet them here, for my ships are out of gear,
And the half of my men are sick. I must fly, but follow quick.
We are six ships of the line ; can we fight with fifty-three ? ’
- “ Then spake Sir Richard Grenville : ‘ I know you are no coward ;
You fly them for a moment to fight with them again.
But I’ve ninety men and more that are lying sick ashore.
I should count myself the coward if I left them, my Lord Howard,
To these Inquisition dogs and the devildoms of Spain.’
- “ So Lord Howard passed away with five ships of war that day,
Till he melted like a cloud in the silent summer heaven ;
But Sir Richard bore in hand all his sick men from the land
Very carefully and slow,
Men of Bideford in Devon,
And we laid them on the ballast down below ;
For we brought them all aboard,
And they blest him in their pain, that they were not left to Spain,
To the thumbscrew and the stake, for the glory of the Lord.
- “ He had only a hundred seamen to work the ship and to fight,
And he sailed away from Flores till the Spaniard came in sight,
With his huge sea-castles heaving upon the weather bow.
‘ Shall we fight, or shall we fly ?
Good Sir Richard, tell us now,
For to fight is but to die !

There'll be little of us left by the time the sun be set.'
 And Sir Richard said again : ' We be all good English men.
 Let us bang these dogs of Seville, the children of the devil,
 For I never turn'd my back upon Don or devil yet.'

" Sir Richard spoke and he laugh'd, and we roar'd a hurrah, and so
 The little *Revenge* ran on sheer into the heart of the foe,
 With her hundred fighters on deck, and her ninety sick below ;
 For half of their fleet to the right and half to the left were seen,
 And the little *Revenge* ran on thro' the long sea-lane between.

" Thousands of their soldiers look'd down from their decks and laugh'd,
 Thousands of their seamen made mock at the mad little craft
 Running on and on till delay'd
 By their mountain-like *San Philip*, that of fifteen hundred tons,
 And up-shadowing high above us with her yawning tiers of guns,
 Took the breath from our sails, and we stay'd,

" And while now the great *San Philip* hung above us like a cloud
 Whence the thunderbolt will fall
 Long and loud,
 Four galleons drew away
 From the Spanish fleet that day,
 And two upon the larboard and two upon the starboard lay,
 And the battle-thunder broke from them all.

" But anon the great *San Philip*, she bethought herself and went
 Having that within her womb that had left her ill content ;
 And the rest they came aboard us, and they fought us hand to hand.
 For a dozen times they came with their pikes and musqueteers,
 And a dozen times we shook 'em off as a dog that shakes his ears
 When he leaps from the water to the land.

" And the sun went down and the stars came out far over the summer
 sea,
 But never a moment ceased the fight of the one and the fifty-three.
 Ship after ship, the whole night long, their high-built galleons came,
 Ship after ship, the whole night long, with her battle-thunder and
 flame ;
 Ship after ship, the whole night long, drew back with her dead and
 her shame.
 For some were sunk and many were shatter'd, and so could fight us
 no more—
 God of battles, was ever a battle like this in the world before ?

“ For he said, ‘ Fight on ! fight on ! ’

Tho’ his vessel was all but a wreck ;

And it chanced that, when half of the short summer night was gone,

With a grisly wound to be drest he had left the deck,

But a bullet struck him that was dressing it suddenly dead,

And himself he was wounded again in the side and the head,

And he said, ‘ Fight on ! fight on ! ’

“ And the night went down, and the sun smiled out far over the
summer sea,

And the Spanish fleet with broken sides lay round us all in a ring ;

But they dared not touch us again, for they fear’d that we still could
sting,

So they watch’d what the end would be.

And we had not fought them in vain,

But in perilous plight were we,

Seeing forty of our poor hundred were slain,

And half of the rest of us maim’d for life

In the crash of the cannonades and the desperate strife ;

And the sick men down in the hold were most of them stark and
cold,

And the pikes were all broken or bent, and the powder was all of it
spent ;

And the masts and the rigging were lying over the side ;

But Sir Richard cried in his English pride,

‘ We have fought such a fight for a day and a night

As may never be fought again !

We have won great glory, my men !

And a day less or more

At sea or ashore,

We die—does it matter when ?

Sink me the ship, Master Gunner—sink her, split her in twain !

Fall into the hands of God, not into the hands of Spain ! ’

“ And the gunner said, ‘ Ay, ay ! ’ but the seamen made reply :

‘ We have children, we have wives,

And the Lord hath spared our lives.

We will make the Spaniard promise, if we yield, to let us go ;

We shall live to fight again and to strike another blow.’

And the lion there lay dying, and they yielded to the foe.

“ And the stately Spanish men to their flagship bore him then,
 Where they laid him by the mast, old Sir Richard caught at last,
 And they praised him to his face with their courtly foreign grace ;
 But he rose upon their decks, and he cried :
 ‘ I have fought for Queen and Faith like a valiant man and true ;
 I have only done my duty as a man is bound to do.
 With a joyful spirit I, Sir Richard Grenville, die ! ’
 And he fell upon their decks, and he died.

“ And they stared at the dead that had been so valiant and true,
 And had holden the power and glory of Spain so cheap
 That he dared her with one little ship and his English few.
 Was he devil or man ? He was devil for aught they knew,
 But they sank his body with honour down into the deep,
 And they mann’d the *Revenge* with a swarthier alien crew,
 And away she sail’d with her loss, and long’d for her own ;
 When a wind from the lands they had ruin’d awoke from sleep,
 And the water began to heave and the weather to moan,
 And or ever that evening ended a great gale blew,
 And a wave like the wave that is raised by an earthquake grew,
 Till it smote on their hulls and their sails and their masts and their
 flags.
 And the whole sea plunged and fell on the shot-shatter’d navy of
 Spain,
 And the little *Revenge* herself went down by the island crags
 To be lost evermore in the main.”

TENNYSON.

“ The Fleet of England is her All-in-all,
 Her fleet is in your hands,
 And in her fleet her fate.”

TENNYSON.

“ We have no defence or hope of defence excepting in our Fleet.”—
 DUKE OF WELLINGTON (in his letter to Sir F. Burgoyne, January
 9th, 1847).

CHAPTER III.

GROWTH OF SEA-POWER.

PART I.

IN the previous chapter we have seen a steadfast struggle maintained by the English people for national liberty—a grand struggle, crowned after long and patient effort with glorious victory. We pass on to consider the one supreme safeguard by which alone, under God's Providence, that dearly won liberty can be guaranteed.

We have already stated that the insular position of England which fostered the love of the sea in the people's heart, and consequently led to sea-power, was one of the causes which brought about the expansion of Great Britain and the formation of a Greater Britain beyond the seas. Let us see how and when this power arose.

As a broad principle to guide us, too much stress cannot be laid on the important influence which England's position "in and by the sea" has exercised upon not only the country's naval history, but unconsciously, it would almost seem, upon the national

policy and expansion in the past ; whilst in these modern days of vastly increased facilities of intercourse and vastly increased dominion, her direct communication with the Atlantic is of enormous advantage.

Long ago the rivers of England, notably the broad estuary of the Humber, were the high-roads by which our forefathers swarmed into the land. Love of the sea, love of the wild free ocean-life, beat high in the breasts of the hardy Norsemen who swooped down on that earlier Britain as pitilessly as eagles on their prey. Four times England has bowed to the invader's hosts—Roman, Saxon, Dane, and Norman—because unprepared with a fleet to turn the enemy from the coast. The Romans came. Their great fleet of war-galleys and transports crossed the Channel unchallenged ; and the battle-storm which left Britain a Roman province began at the water's edge, not on its bosom.

The brave Britons met their foe on land. The story of the one-sided struggle shows it to have been one of the fiercest and most dramatic recorded in history. Crowded on the open beach at a point near Deal, the defenders were seen waiting as Cæsar's galleys appeared. As the great ships swung nearer and nearer, the tremendous excitement of the watchers on the beach could be restrained no longer. Horses and chariots and infantry, a tossing, surging wave of martial figures, rushed to the water's brink,

and defiance was hurled at the intruders. The wild nature of the scene, the extraordinary fierceness of the people's resistance daunted even the Roman soldiers, familiar as they were with victory. But the lull was for a moment only. The standard-bearer of the Tenth Legion leapt into the waters, and following his example the Romans flung themselves overboard and struggled to shore. The contest might have ended here. Vainly did the Britons fling themselves in combat against that rock of disciplined valour. They fought on against "one of the greatest military powers of all time" with a tenacity and determined opposition that fill us with wonder. Their spirit was as unquenchable as their courage, but they were powerless to withstand the discipline and skill of the Roman legionaries. The country was conquered, and for over three hundred years Britain remained a province of the Roman Empire. Then the glory of Rome sank. Her power decayed, and her Colonial Empire was broken up. By the year 410 the last of the Roman legions was withdrawn from Britain. By their departure the country was left unprovided with means of defence, and unable after long years of dependence to revive the old national spirit of combination in face of a common danger, in the years that followed Britain had little cause to welcome her recovered independence. Severed from the Empire, with no war-galleys to protect the coast, she lay at the mercy of the

incoming bands of Jutes, Saxons, and Angles, who came in quick succession, first to pillage, then to stay.

Resist as valiantly as they might, the Britons were powerless to roll back the stream of Germanic invasion. In the long struggle the invaders triumphed ; Britain became England, and the Briton was uprooted, dispossessed, or absorbed. Having won their territories, the conquerors, for more than two hundred years, maintained a jealous rivalry amongst themselves, until in 828, Egbert, King of Wessex, became supreme over all England. In these years the English people turned to peaceful pursuits, tillage, the growing of corn, and the rearing of cattle. They ceased to roam the seas in search of a livelihood.

But another, and this the last, great migration of the Northmen was to follow. Barely was England brought "under a fair semblance of unity in submission to a single ruler," when the Danes made their appearance in the Thames, and ravaged the English coast. Under the fierce "pressure of the pagans of the North," King Alfred formed a navy. To guard against invasion he set himself to win the sea. It was no ordinary task that the King achieved. Nothing is more striking in the history of the man than the fashion in which he set to work to overcome all obstacles. Early and late he worked, planning, modelling, building, directing, until slowly ship followed ship in close line, and a gallant fleet of



one hundred and twenty war-galleys ploughed the Channel and kept the coast. After this brave effort the invader was held at bay, and in 897, Alfred, with ten galleys, defeated three hundred sail of Danish pirates, and drove them to sea. Earlier than this, King Alfred's victory over the Danish Vikings in 875, when "in Swannage Bay he fought seven ships and put the rest to flight," is believed to head the glorious roll of English naval battles.

Sixty years after Alfred's death King Edgar had three powerful fleets of armed cruisers, "one on the north, another on the east, and a third on the west coast, numbering altogether between four and five hundred sail." External attacks were warded off, and the King enjoyed peaceful supremacy. A touch of barbaric splendour lights up the faded page of Edgar's naval greatness. "Eight vassal kings," we are told, "rowed the King up the Dee—Kenneth, King of the Scots; Malcolm, King of Northumberland; M'Orrice, King of Anglesey and the Isles; Dyfnwal, Griffith, and Howel, three Welsh kings; Jago, King of Galloway; and Jukil, King of Westmoreland." *

But the reign of Ethelred the Unready was a time of trouble and disaster for England, and the chronicles of those days reveal the anger and the shame felt at the inroads of the old foes of the land. First Southampton, next the Isle of Portland, and then, worst of all, London, were ravaged and burnt by a ship-force

* "Britain's Naval Power," by Hamilton Williams.

of the sea-rovers, and no effective resistance was made. The cowardly system of buying off attack began, and the country was impoverished by the Dane-geld, as the tribute to the Dane was called. When King Ethelred died, in 1016, he left the realm, raised to peace and greatness by Alfred, harassed, forlorn, and destitute, and ere a month had passed Cnut the Dane was left in sole possession by the death of his rival, King Edmund. Under Cnut internal peace was once more gained, and a fleet defended these shores.

When, however, one fair September morning in the year 1066, thirty-one years after Cnut's death, William of Normandy appeared off the Sussex coast, and the Norman fleet rode gaily at anchor in Pevensey Bay, no navy was waiting to receive them. Defence began on shore, and the land was won by the invader. The new-comers, the Normans, or Northmen, were the very flower of the Scandinavian peoples, foremost in valour and military skill, and "in the power of embracing and improving on the culture with which their conquests soon made them familiar." * Some time towards the close of the ninth century a party of these northern rovers had issued from the Norwegian fiords, or creeks, and, led by their great chieftain, Rollo, they had sailed up the Seine, and so carried their arms into France. Under Rollo the Duchy of Normandy was founded in 913.

* "History of England," by Edgar Sanderson, M.A.

The valiant Northmen lost nothing of their old courage and renown for arms under warmer skies, but during the next century and a half the descendants of these hardy sea-pirates were transformed into a courtly and chivalrous nation, "the foremost people in Christendom." Such were the people, at their highest and best, whom William, Duke of Normandy, landed on Pevensey beach unopposed. It was not that King Harold had neglected preparations to withstand his coming. The English King had collected a fleet, "the greatest ever seen in England," and sharp watch had been kept in the Channel in the hope of intercepting the Normans. But the enemy had been hindered by a heavy gale, and when, after a month's delay, the Norman fleet, so long held back by contrary winds, gained our shores, the English seamen had dispersed for want of provisions. The Normans threw themselves into the land, and the most desperate, brilliant, and eventful page of the history of the English people was made on the battlefield of Senlac, on the Sussex Downs. After a stubborn fight King Harold and the flower of England's might lay slain on the field at Hastings, as the battle is popularly known in history. The Norman Duke, England's conqueror, became England's King. And then, as time rolled onward, gradually there came about the fusion of the Saxon and the Norman races. Is it to be wondered at that the descendants of these two sea-roving races should

show a strong love of the sea and a genius for maritime combat, or that maritime pursuits should play a prominent part in the nation's history?

Richard of the Lion-Heart was the first of our monarchs to lead the fleet into foreign waters. Richard and Philip of France had agreed that they two should lead a great united host into the Holy Land against the Infidels. The Easter of 1190 over, the chivalry of England gathered together, preparing for the great Crusade. Money was raised for the adventure. The King summoned his navy, and a gallant fleet set sail from Dartmouth to join King Richard at Marseilles. The French and English parted company, and took their own routes. Of the English adventures by the way one only can be related here. This was a furious encounter with a monster Turkish vessel, which carried on board "two hundred most deadly serpents," intended for the destruction of the English. The Turk was formidable in size and numbers without her loathsome weapons. Fearing his men might hesitate to board her, and that she would escape, the violent nature of the King showed itself in a passionate burst of fury. He vowed that every one of his men should be crucified or should be put to the torture if the ship got off. The fierceness of his mood so wrought upon the men that they flung themselves against her, and after a desperate fight the unequal contest ended in their capture of the Turk. After this episode the King took Limassol,

in Cyprus, and made conquest of the lovely island in order to punish Isaac Comnenus, its Governor, for certain outrages perpetrated on some stranded English seamen. At Limassol King Richard married the beautiful Berengaria, daughter of the King of Navarre. But here we must leave the kingly Crusader, whilst yet on his way to the wars which were to carry the Cross against the Crescent.

The halo of a blaze of glory which makes Richard appear in the pages of romance as the great hero of the age of chivalry sheds no softening light around his brother John. But, hated as John was, up and down the land, the spirit of Englishmen broke into passionate resistance against the attempts at invasion to dethrone him. From Passion Week in 1208 to the year 1214 England lay outlawed under the terrible ban of Pope Innocent's interdict. To Philip of France the Pope assigned the task of dethroning John, with the promise that the vacant English Crown should be given to the French monarch as a reward when John was removed. But after John had bitten the dust, and made his humble and degrading submission to the Court of Rome, the Pope changed his mind, and Philip was told that no invasion must be attempted. As might be expected, the French monarch was not so lightly to be baulked of his prize, and, setting the Pope's injunction at naught, he continued his naval and military preparations for the invasion. Before, however, his preparations could be completed, his

intentions were foiled by the brilliant exploits of the English navy. The fleet, hastily summoned to protect the coast, did not wait for the enemy to put to sea, but crossed the Channel and attacked the French ships in their own ports. Under their gallant admiral, William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury, the English swung round into Fécamp, destroyed or captured many of the French ships, and then proceeded to burn Dieppe. This was in 1213. A little later on the same admiral gained a splendid victory over a French fleet in the Flemish harbour of Damme. The earlier descent on the French ports had, however, already dispelled all fear of Philip's invasion for the time being. Nearly four years later the attempt was revived, and a powerful armament of eighty vessels put forth from Calais under the command of the daring pirate, Eustace the Monk. This time it was the resolute Hubert de Burgh, the Governor of Dover Castle, who warded off the danger. With forty vessels collected from the Cinque Ports, each well armed with the weapons of the day, De Burgh stole out to meet the adversary. The fleets closed in battle off Sandwich. If the fight was short, it was wild, deadly, and decisive. The white foam breaking round the rocking vessels was crimsoned by the fierce encounter. Mr. Williams recounts the murderous nature of the attack—how the French were blinded by the quicklime thrown by our sailors; how their men fell fast under a pitiless rain of arrows poured into them

by our archers, and how showers of stones were hurled on their decks; how with reckless ardour the English seamen swung themselves aboard one vessel and "cut the halyard, and the great sail fell with its heavy yard, like a net upon snared birds." And so on, until the grim fight was over and the day won, and Hubert de Burgh, with his prizes in tow, ploughed the waves triumphant, and returned to Dover.

The Cinque Ports, from which Hubert gathered his fleet, were originally five in number, as their name implies. They acted as sentinels along the coast. Their number was increased to seven later on, and Hastings, Winchelsea, Rye, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich all shared the honour of defending the realm against the bands of pirates who roamed the seas. But it must be owned that in degenerate days the Cinque Ports were something akin to a den of pirates themselves. In spite of the precautions taken to defend the land from incursion from the sea, our French neighbours and the Spaniards and Flemings hovered round like birds of prey. Froissart tells us how they harassed our shores, burning and pillaging at will, whenever and wherever opportunity offered, and most of our sea-fights at this tumultuous time were caused by these piratical attacks and reprisals.

After a whole series of French ravages round the south coast, King Edward III., bent upon asserting

his claims to the French crown, and already engaged in war with Philip of Valois, prepared to challenge the enemy at sea. News was brought that Philip had a large fleet lying in Sluys harbour, situated at that time near the mouth of the Scheldt, but now, owing to the receding of the sea, several miles inland. With all haste Edward made ready to follow, and set sail from Orwell. This was in 1340. That prince of chroniclers, Sir John Froissart, relates that when Edward came up with Philip's fleet at Sluys, "he saw so great a number of ships that their masts seemed to be like a great wood." Sluys was King Edward's greatest sea-fight, and it took a long time to win. French and English both fought with amazing courage and obstinacy. But Edward's men had an object right before their eyes that made them mad for victory. There in the midst of the French ships rode the *Christopher*, one of the finest vessels in the English navy. The French had taken her in the previous year. At the sight of their gallant ship in the enemy's lines, the English needed no urging to the fray. Grim and determined, they fought their ships with a dash and skill that bore down all before them. Edward's archers did terrible execution in that day's fight, and the hail of arrows poured on for hours after the "beautiful *Christopher*" was retaken. Thousands of the enemy were killed, and two hundred of Philip's ships fell prizes to the English King—the "King of the Sea," as his people called him.

In the ensuing decade sea-rovers from other shores found Edward prepared with the best defence this realm can have—a good navy. But of the naval fighting that went on in those rough-and-ready days, one event only need be mentioned here. Ten years after the battle of Sluys Edward won a great victory over a Spanish squadron off Winchelsea, and captured twenty-six of their ships. From this time, apparently, the glory and the lustre of the “King of the Sea” slowly faded. The navy was neglected, and our old foes renewed their piratical attacks on our shores. A series of desultory sea-fights with varying results mark this period. We read how the Earl of Arundel, in the reign of Richard II., gained a signal victory over a Flemish fleet, capturing eighty prizes. Again, in 1405, in Henry IV.’s reign, the English on one occasion took eight and destroyed fifteen French ships off Milford Haven. The Duke of Bedford’s exploit off Harfleur, in 1416, when he took or destroyed nearly five hundred French ships, is a part of the French wars and an event of greater historic importance. But later on, in 1459, there was another skirmish off the Downs, when the Earl of Warwick captured a Spanish and Genoese fleet. Many other engagements took place. Sometimes our seamen were successful; sometimes victory lay with the enemy. But all the same, English seamen were learning a valuable lesson which led to important results in the future.

It was under the Tudors, however, that our sailors acquired and displayed the shining seamanship and audacious daring which made England a maritime State. Beginning with the reign of Henry VII., England made her great move seawards. It was the close of the fifteenth century—a century that witnessed the transition from mediæval to modern history. “The old order changeth, giving place to the new.” It was pre-eminently a stirring time. The known world was enlarging her boundaries, and the seas were the highways to the new lands and the new wealth. Towards the close of the fourteenth century Portugal, trained, inspired, directed, watched, by that unwearied and noble prince, Henry the Navigator, started as pioneer in a renewed effort to roll back the boundaries bequeathed by the nations of antiquity. The “Advance of Knowledge of the Earth” was the task Prince Henry set himself to accomplish, and history presents no more steadfast figure than that of the patient watcher on the Portuguese coast, who for forty-three years sent forth his emissaries, and worked, watched, and waited by turn. In the course of the fifteenth century the Portuguese fulfilled a dazzling mission, and to them belongs “the honour of showing Europe the ocean-road to Asia.”

To find a sea road to India was the great geographical problem of the century. One expedition after another set forth for the north-western coast of

Africa, and by slow stages India was reached. In 1415 their King, John I., was attracted by the wonderful coast of Barbary, and the great city Ceuta fell a rich prize to Portugal. In 1420 Prince Henry's emissaries anchored off Madeira. In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz passed the "Cape of all Storms"—a name his royal master, with happy augury, changed to "Spes Bona"—Good Hope. And then, in July, 1497, Vasco da Gama sailed from the Tagus, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and landed at Calicut, on the coast of India, in May of the following year. But before this Spain had begun a race for the revived glories of exploration and discovery, and in 1492 the magnificent discoveries of Columbus eclipsed even those of Portugal. Profiting by his splendid labours, the Spaniards were now masters of the New World. They crossed and re-crossed the vast ocean, unsailed until that memorable voyage made by Columbus gave them possession of the untold wealth of the West Indies, and added a New World to Christendom. To and fro the Spanish merchant fleets passed, with armed force on board to protect the prize ships as they bore back to Spain their precious cargo of pearls, sugar, fruits, spices, and other treasures, or the priceless mineral wealth of newly found Mexico and Peru. In 1494 such ascendancy had their Colonial successes brought to Spain and to her rival Portugal that by the Treaty of Tordesillas they made agreement to divide the

globe in twain, one half to Spain, the other to Portugal.

Wonderful tales of hitherto unvisited countries, peopled with unknown dark-skinned races, having manners and customs so different from what obtained at home, floated from every English seaport where our mariners landed. Stories of rich-hanging fruits, the brilliant tropical growth of vegetation, the gay-plumaged birds, the marvellous beasts, the deadly reptiles, lost nothing of their marvel in the telling. More exciting still were the accounts spread of the riches to be found in these lands over the sea—the heaped-up gold and silver in the earth, the rich booty borne by Spain at sea from the West.

Nor must it be supposed, though last seemingly to step into the line of discovery, or rather last to profit by the stores of wealth suddenly thrown open, that England had had no part in the adventurous navigation that had “reconstructed the map of the world.” At the outset of all this discovery is the romance of one Master Macham, an Englishman who, eloping from England to Spain with his lady-love, was driven by adverse winds to Madeira, and the lady suffering terribly from the rough voyage, he took her ashore on the pleasant island, whereupon the ship and the crew sailed off without them, which disastrous event caused the lady to die of “thought.” After her death Macham erected a tomb and a chapel in her memory, and, having engraved their sad story

upon the tomb, he hollowed a boat for himself out of a great tree, and sailed forth once more. From Macham's information Henry III. of Castile made search for Madeira in 1395, and in 1405 the Canaries were sighted instead. In 1420, when the Portuguese at last came upon Madeira, they found both tomb and chapel, as Macham had said. According to Walsingham, the city of Ceuta, also, which added such lustre to Portugal, "was gotten by the help of the English."

That lifting of the impenetrable darkness which had so long imprisoned the New World was the signal for change and progress in Europe, and England would not be left behind in the new glories. In the middle of the sixteenth century Westward ho! came to be the watchword of our sailor race, whilst "abroad our merchants were penetrating—on the heels of travellers, of whom not a few were Englishmen—to the Levant, to the Baltic, and even to Cathay and Tartary." * East and West the era of colonisation had set in for Portugal and Spain, and their powerful navies sheltered a princely commerce. All this King Henry saw and understood, and English merchants and sailors understood also. To be great and prosperous, like Portugal or Spain, they must build up the English navy. So King Henry is sometimes styled the "Founder of our Navy." He built the *Great Harry*, and he was the first of our kings who established the navy as a

* "English Colonisation and Empire," by Alfred Caldecott, M.A.

national force, and bestirred himself to encourage maritime discovery and trade.

Sensible of the wealth brought to Spain by her Colonial possessions, Henry was ready to countenance the trading enterprises of his own subjects. John Cabot, a Venetian seaman living in Bristol, asked and obtained the King's patent for a voyage of discovery to the West, and led the way to the famous fisheries of Newfoundland. In the year 1497 he set out from Bristol with an English fleet, and "discovered that land which no man before that time had attempted, on the 24th of June, about five of the clocke early in the morning." * Stimulated by the royal approval, the last years of the fifteenth century saw English merchants eagerly fitting out expeditions with the object of following up discovery, and Henry's patents empowered his navigators to annex all such islands and lands as were hitherto unknown to Christendom. Nothing better illustrates the spirit in which such adventures were regarded by Englishmen than a little speech made by the gallant Henry Sidney, the chosen friend of Edward VI., when presenting Chancellor as "master mariner" to those patrons and friends who had fitted out one of these maritime expeditions. It had for its object the discovery of the north-east passage to India, which navigators were persuaded had existence, and would, when found, provide greater trade facilities, and

* Hakluyt's Collections.

it was "enterprised by Sir Hugh Willoughbie, Knight, and performed by Richard Chancellor, Pilot-Major."

It is with the performer that we have to do, Chancellor, a man, "holding nothing so ignominious and reproachful as inconstancy and levity of mind, and persuading himself that a man of valour could not commit a more dishonourable part than for fear of danger to avoid and shun great attempts, . . . determined rather to bring that (the undertaking) to pass or to die the death."

In his speech Sidney speaks first of the enterprise, asserting it to be a godly and virtuous intention on the part of those who are about to venture in it. But he goes on to show how much more Chancellor has at stake than they. "We commit a little money to the chance and hazard of fortune; he commits his life (a thing to a man of all things most dear) to the raging sea and the uncertainties of many dangers. . . . We shall keep our own coast and country; he shall seek strange and unknown kingdoms. He shall commit his safety to barbarous and cruel people, and shall hazard his life amongst the monstrous and terrible beasts of the sea."

Hakluyt has preserved the account of brave Richard Chancellor's audacious venture in the trading service of his country; how he and his men found their way, not to the north-east passage, indeed, but to Muscovy, to the palace of Ivan the Terrible, the

White Czar, and there, in the splendid barbarian's court, all unabashed, proffered and obtained their request to open trading relations with the land on behalf of England.

But Henry VIII. has a far better claim than his father to be called the founder of the Navy. He too saw the value of a vigorous commercial policy for England, and that a navy was essential for the development of her trade. Moreover, the new King was generous where his royal father had been mean. It must be clearly understood that in earlier reigns the navy, as an officially organised establishment and as a standing means of defence, had no existence. In times of war and emergency our ships had been obtained principally from the Cinque Ports, and also by hire from English and foreign merchants. But now Henry VIII. made a resolute effort to place the naval defence of his realm on a sounder basis, by remodelling the whole system. The dockyards of Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth were established. Sundry enactments were made, providing for the supply of timber to meet the requirements, and ship-building made a new and hopeful start. The Navy Office—the beginning of our present Admiralty—came into existence; and, desirous of stimulating and protecting English commerce and trade, Henry authorised the founding (1512, and incorporated 1514) of that important body, the Corporation of Trinity House. The results of these substantial naval

improvements were of signal utility in the reign of his daughter Elizabeth.

Unconsciously but gradually the sea-power of England was shaping itself for sterner work. With the reign of Elizabeth there dawned a great maritime revolution for the English race. Once the name of Elizabeth, "the Lady of the Seas," appears, the English naval annals become something infinitely more intimate and stirring than chronological facts. At once their pages quicken into vivid and thrilling narrative, so picturesque, so crowded with heroic action, that the whole field of romantic fiction cannot equal in astonishing and rich adventure the ground occupied by the great sea-captains of Elizabethan times. We know them all by name—Drake, Raleigh, and Gilbert, the brave old Sir Richard Grenville and Lord Sheffield, Sir Robert Southwell, the two Hawkins, Richard and John, Sir Martin Frobisher, Sir John Davis, John Oxenham, George Fenner, and the gallant High Admiral of England, Lord Charles Howard of Effingham. Under Elizabeth our mariners, by much practice, learnt to know their power, and first became a terror to their enemies on the ocean. "For the first time in her history England found herself engaged in maritime war with a great power holding extra-European possessions and carrying on a rich trade whose destruction provided a powerful spur to the ambitions of a race of sailors." *

* See "The Army Book for the British Empire."

The fine fleets of Spain and Portugal held magnificent guard over their Colonial possessions, and the great sea-duel of the sixteenth century was fought to the death between the power and might of the splendid empire of Spain—under Philip II., one of the finest the world has ever seen—and the infant navy of England.

But it was not all fighting. The passion for maritime discovery was a feature of the age, and men dreamed by night and day of the discovery of a north-west or north-east passage to India. In order to discover this, Frobisher braved the stormy seas and penetrated to the coast of Labrador in 1576. And in 1585 John Davis, bent on the same quest, reached the straits which bear his name.

The Spanish method of colonisation, to quote Mr. Caldecott's forcible language, was "an unmitigated exploitation of the new lands on behalf of the old. Despotic in government, it was monopolist in trade policy." It was this monopolist trade policy that irritated the seamen and merchants of England. In the reign of Elizabeth two great national sentiments suddenly became involved in the question of Spain's vaunted superiority. One was the strong tide of religious passion against Roman Catholicism; the other, a detestation of tyranny, developing into a fierce repudiation of the pretensions of Spain, which, now that it was strengthened by the conquest of its great rival, Portugal, claimed mastery in the four great seas—the Indian, the Pacific, the

Atlantic, and the Mediterranean—thus cutting off English merchants from the lucrative Eastern market as from all traffic in the New World of the West. The popular feeling merged into a general hatred of Spain. The attempt of its King, Philip II., to crush Protestantism in the Netherlands, and wherever his influence extended, his efforts to prevent any but Spaniards from sharing in the riches of Central and Southern America, and the tales of torture and cruelties perpetrated by the Office of the Inquisition on Englishmen, aroused the spirit of the people into open defiance and retaliation.

In the south of England especially the fearless men of Devon and Cornwall swarmed out of the Channel, bent on offering any insult to the Spanish flag which might show their scorn of the hateful monopoly of the Spaniard, harry his trade, and avenge the sufferings of their fellow-Protestants. Some of these men electrified the world with the audacity and courage of their exploits. But the name of Francis Drake ranks above all others in the famous group of Elizabethan seamen. He stands foremost of that indomitable cluster, as the great type of the English sailor in the sixteenth century. Judged from a modern standpoint, he is the *beau-ideal* of a piratical adventurer, boldly aggressive and defiant, a man whose daring piracies would have brought him to punishment. But viewed in the spirit of the age in which he lived, we see how far above all this he was—that

it was not greed of conquest or gold, but the saving of his Queen and country, the preservation of the Protestant faith, that sent him forth to destroy. We see the strength and endurance as well as the daring seamanship, the ardent patriotism, and that stern, unbending Puritan piety and zeal which left no room in his breast for fear, but literally swept the Spaniard before him. The very name of Drake aroused terror on the Spanish main. The story of his circumnavigation of the globe reads like a page of romance rather than sober fact. Was human courage, and human endurance and endeavour, ever put to more fiery test than on that first sailing round the world? Truly Drake's achievement remains unrivalled, and a marvel no less for airy audacity and skilful seamanship than as a great event in history.

With four small vessels, and less than two hundred men, Drake put forth from Plymouth, and crossed the Atlantic. His plan was to thread the Straits of Magellan, and attack the Spanish Colonies on the western side of America. The Queen consented to the enterprise, and for the first time the English flag was carried into the Pacific. Drake coasted Chili and Peru, helped himself at will to the mines, plundered the mineral wealth of Potosi and the ocean-given pearls which lay waiting at Lima, ready for the Spanish galleon on its annual visit of collection. Next, having stored his spoils on board, he set sail by way of the Moluccas, fought the Spaniards

whenever he met them, doubled the Cape, finished the circuit of the globe, and eventually landed in November, 1580, with a cargo of half a million in specie and jewels. With the English temper wholly roused against Spain, such an exploit brought joy to all adventurous hearts, and Drake's splendid daring evoked national enthusiasm. He was the idol of the country, and his knighthood at the hands of the Sovereign was the answer to King Philip's demand for redress. "The worst fears of the Spaniards," writes Mr. Williams, "as to the dread and mysterious man who had risen up against them were more than realised. Drake, Draco, the Dragon, the bodily presence of heresy, the Incarnate Evil One, was upon them." * In 1585 Drake started for a fresh descent, and, "flying across to the West Indies, he laid San Domingo," St. Jago, "and Cartagena under a heavy ransom."

History shows that neither Philip nor Elizabeth desired the open fight for which Protestant England panted, but the affronts offered to Spain by the English sea-rovers brought to a crisis a movement which had been in preparation for over half a century. Spain, as we have said, was at this time the most powerful Empire in the world. She had annexed the Netherlands, Portugal, Central and South America. In the East, the wealthy Portuguese Colonies had fallen to her Crown. Her fleet was in

* "Britain's Naval Power."

command of the seas. Her army was the finest of the age. And now this great Power made ready to crush the bold English sailors who had wounded the pride of Spain to the quick by setting at naught her asserted right of territory. The Spanish fleet was preparing for the great invasion, when, in 1587, Sir Francis Drake, now an English admiral, entered the roadstead of Cadiz, and coolly burnt eighteen and carried off six others of the galleons lying in readiness for the projected invasion of England. Not contented with this, he repeated a like bold stroke at Lisbon, retiring from thence unopposed by the incapable Medina Sidonia, the Spanish naval commander. Drake had "singed the King of Spain's beard," as he said, and the object of his attack was gained; the Armada had to wait another year before setting sail for England.

The Great Armada which Philip II. had fitted out for the punitive invasion of our small northern island was the largest fleet that the world had ever seen. It was composed of all the bravest and best of Spain, and Philip sent it with all confidence under the command of Duke Medina Sidonia to the conquest of England.

What followed marks the naval capacity of England no less than the patriotism of her sons. The courage of Elizabeth rose to the occasion—the State papers of that day bear witness that the brave Queen never flinched from the unequal contest—and her people

rallied round her right nobly. She could not command the numbers that Philip mustered, but they who manned her ships were bold and hardy seamen, and were officered by men accustomed to sail the wildest seas. Never had men such training and experience in maritime combat and hazardous navigation as Elizabeth's great admirals.

Lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins, and Sir Martin Frobisher were in command of the fleet which lay off Plymouth. Another squadron under Lord Henry Seymour meanwhile blockaded the Dutch ports to keep the Duke of Parma from embarking on the English enterprise.

The Spanish Armada was also, if we omit its inefficient commander, Medina Sidonia, finely equipped. The flower of Spain had embarked upon a mission blessed by the Pope, and how bravely the Spanish gentlemen and mariners bore themselves in the overwhelming disaster that befell them is seen by the fact that not a ship struck its flag, but went to its doom, its honour unstained.

The Great Armada numbered 130 galleons, great and small, varying from 1000 to 1300 tons; four galliases rowed by 300 slaves carried 50 guns; as many galleys furnished and oared in like manner; 20 pinnaces; and besides a large number of splendidly armed vessels, the finest and best that Spanish and Italian princes and merchants could produce. The

fleet was provided with 3000 guns, and on board were 9000 mariners and 17,000 soldiers. These last were to join the military force of the Prince of Parma. A crowd of the Spanish nobility with their trains, and some 500 or 600 priests to fan the religious zeal of the invading host and to convert England, completed the mighty armament of Spain.*

It was met at the entrance to the Channel by the British Fleet, which all told consisted of 80 vessels and 9000 men, a mere handful by comparison. The fight began on a Sunday, July 21st. The English ships, which were small, lighter, and more easily handled than the unwieldy Spanish galleons, dexterously hung upon the Spaniard's rear, and for a week so harassed them with shot and arrows, and bewildered them with the swiftness and audacity of a whole series of skilful manœuvres and deadly attacks, that the enemy were both weakened and demoralised. Their galleons were boarded, burnt, sunk, or driven ashore, and, the mischief done, away flew the English with an airy speed that hopelessly out-distanced their bulky pursuers. Again and again were these damaging manœuvres carried out by the English, whilst Duke Medina Sidonia tried vainly to join hands with the Duke of Parma, who ought to have been waiting ready at Dunkirk. Parma, however, had not yet left Bruges, and the junction never took place, while the result of harrying hostilities

* "The Spanish Story of the Armada," by Froude.

kept up by the English was that when the Spanish and English fleets closed off Calais, the Spaniards had already suffered terrible loss. But even then, after Lord Howard's fire-ships, sent into the midst of the enemy, had created the hoped-for panic, and had worked havoc on Spain, the enemy's vessels which remained for the open engagement seemed "wonderful great and strong," even to fearless Drake.

The fight that followed is one of the fiercest on record ; 4000 Spaniards fell. And when at length, finding retreat cut off, what was left of the Great Armada filed round the northern shores of Britain to Spain, destruction followed hard. A fierce gale arose with unabated fury, scattering them in all directions. Violent storms broke in all their terrible force on the ill-fated ships, already battered and crippled by the fierce conflict. Some were dashed to pieces on the rocks, many sank in full sight of land, others were driven ashore westward, only to experience a worse fate at the hands of the inhabitants. In a bay near Sligo 1100 bodies were washed ashore, and between Rossan Point and the Bay of Valentia 8000 are said to have perished. Only a pitiful remnant, indeed, of the great host which had so proudly started dragged wearily into port at Corunna after this crushing defeat.

Thus was England saved from imminent danger of conquest, by the winds, the waves, and the inimitable skill and daring of her seamen. She had had long

practice before winning such high self-confidence. The daring of her bold mariners in search of new markets, and their contempt of Spanish supremacy had been so many steps towards the issue. But the great victory over the Armada was something more than a national triumph. Not only was England saved by "the overthrow of the Spanish Colossus that bestrode the ocean," and Philip's naval power ruined, but it decided the fate of the Reformation in Europe, and, at home, it taught the English people the wisdom of a national policy founded upon sea-power. It was by sea-power that her self-confidence had more than justified itself, and Englishmen, moved by the spirit of adventure and discovery, began to look abroad more and more, once they had awakened to a sense of the national power. From this point the great struggle began in earnest. In 1589 Drake attacked and burnt Vigo.

How great was the fearless confidence of the sailor of those days the story of Sir Richard Grenville shows. His is a name never to be forgotten by Britons. It has been immortalised by Tennyson in the poem which heads this chapter.

In 1591, Lord Thomas Howard was sent in command of a squadron of seven ships to waylay the Spanish-Indian fleet. Sir Richard Grenville commanded one of Howard's ships. Finding himself cut off from the rest of the fleet, with indomitable courage he fought his ship from three in the afternoon

of one day till dawn of the next. His little ship, the *Revenge*, was a small vessel of 500 tons, manned by only 190 men, of whom 90 were sick. Yet he never hesitated to engage single-handed a Spanish fleet of fifty-three vessels, manned by 15,000 men. He fought for fifteen hours, sank two Spanish ships, and repulsed the continued attacks of fifteen others. Then, as the gallant *Revenge* lay dismasted, a helpless wreck, the grand old Elizabethan sea-dog would have blown up his vessel rather than haul down his flag, if his men would have yielded to his wish. But they had done their best, and had fought a splendid fight, their famous captain was mortally wounded, forty of their number lay dead on deck, and nearly all the remainder were disabled; their powder was exhausted, and all the pikes broken, so the surviving crew made honourable terms with the Spaniards, and were sent back to England.

The struggle with Spain continued. To attack the Spaniards and to seize their treasure fleets gave zest and stimulus to the operations of our seamen, who were determined to destroy the rich Colonial trade of their powerful enemy. Philip had no sooner completed his second Armada, than Howard, Essex, and Raleigh took Cadiz, and burnt, sank, or captured the new galleons. Peace was made when James I. succeeded to the English throne, and it was the luckless fate of brave Sir Walter Raleigh to fall a victim to the selfish policy of the King. Imprisoned for alleged

connection with the Main and Bye Plots, Raleigh had, after a long confinement, craved permission to once more explore the Orinoco River, and seek treasure for the King in Guiana, believed by all Englishmen of that age to be the Spanish Dorado, the gold country. Treachery pursued him. He failed to find the gold-mines, and the scaffold saw the end of the great English statesman and seaman whose whole life had been one continuous effort for his country's welfare and advancement.

Elsewhere we have said that the Portuguese flag yielded to Spain in 1580, but the Portuguese resented English trade-rivalry in the Persian Gulf, and hostilities were kept up between the years 1621 and 1625, with considerable vigour. Eventually, after several naval duels between the respective trading vessels, in 1622, Ormuz was besieged, and the place was surrendered to England. According to Mr. Crofts, this was the beginning of English supremacy in these waters. Nearer home, however, an attempt, under Viscount Wimbledon, to take Cadiz, in 1625, proved a failure.

England, however, had broken the maritime supremacy of Spain. Her next great rivals on the seas were the Dutch, who were able navigators. They had built themselves a fine navy, and at that time enjoyed a large portion of the carrying trade of the world. A time came when the English Government thought it necessary, in the interests of English commerce, to check this, and accordingly, during the

Commonwealth, in 1651, Cromwell's Parliament passed an Act, the principles of which were afterwards affirmed in the reign of Charles II., in the year 1660, and which exercised considerable influence on the maritime power of England. This was the famous "Navigation Act," which remained in force until its abolition in 1849, and which restricted the importation or exportation of goods from or to Asia, Africa, or America, to English ships of which the masters and three-fourths of the crew were English. This regulation interfered with the trade of the Dutch, as was intended, and ultimately led to war between the two nations in 1652.

Under the Navy of the Commonwealth, our sea-power began to declare itself as a factor in the process of colonisation. At this time, Spain and Portugal still held possession of by far the larger portion of the New World. France, however, had large territories in North America. "Holland," writes Professor Ransome, "had little in America, but had considerable settlements in the Spice Islands, off the south-eastern coast of Asia, including the Isle of Java," while England had only two small settlements on the coast of North America and Bermuda. "Hitherto, the nations had rivalled each other in a race who should seize territory occupied by natives only. Oliver Cromwell began a fight for the possession of Colonies themselves." * In the hands of Blake, Cromwell's

* "Our Colonies and India," by Cyril Ransome, M.A. Oxon.

great admiral, the sea-power of England rose from the decadence of the civil war period, to a supreme and national importance. At this period the Dutch fleet was highly efficient, and its brave admirals, De Ruyter and Van Tromp, would have been notable seamen in any age; but England had a worthy opponent for them in Blake, "the great Admiral of the Commonwealth." In September, 1652, a fierce battle was fought off Dover between De Ruyter and Blake, when the Dutch, after a gallant fight, sheered off. Only two months later, the operation was reversed, when Van Tromp surprised the English in the Downs, and Blake, after eight hours' fighting at fearful odds—for he was outnumbered three to one—had to get off as best he could. So elated were the Dutch at this victory over the great English sailor that Van Tromp is said to have sailed in mock triumph through the Channel carrying a broom hoisted at his mast-head, to signify that he had swept the English from the seas.

Not for long did this humiliating position continue. The next year, in a memorable three days' fight, from Portland Bill to Calais, Blake, Penn, and Monk terribly avenged the insult to the British Flag, and the maritime mastery which Holland had held for some fifty years received its first blow. In the same year Blake defeated the Dutch off the North Foreland, and again on the coast of Holland. At this last engagement the gallant Van Tromp fell. Here,

too, the furious struggle spent itself, and in 1654 the Dutch, humbled into acquiescence, agreed to salute the British Flag.

War, however, was once more breaking out with Spain. The English Commonwealth, strong in its brave admirals, was eagerly expanding its trade and seeking fresh markets. Since the successful step towards permanent colonisation taken in 1607 under James I., by planting a colony in Virginia, similar attempts had been made elsewhere, and Cromwell now directed his attention towards Colonial enterprise. Bent on breaking Spain's jealous hold on the West Indies, he demanded equal trading rights with that country. This being refused by the King of Spain, Cromwell prepared to go to war on the question. "It is," writes Hallam, "from these maritime wars of Cromwell that the naval glory of England can first be traced in a continuous track of light."

England's first move towards maritime supremacy was to establish her authority in the Mediterranean Sea. A fleet was dispatched under Blake to exact reparation from Tuscany for certain commercial wrongs sustained by English merchants. He was also to bombard Algiers and destroy its fleet, and to overawe Tripoli, and put an end to the tyranny of the Moslem sea-pirates. All this Blake successfully accomplished, and carried the St. George's flag into every Mediterranean port. A second fleet, which had been sent under Penn and Venables to the West

Indies, failed most miserably to take St. Domingo (Hispanolia), but in 1655 seized Jamaica, where the Spaniards made little resistance; and thus Spain's monopoly of the West Indies was broken. Though Penn was thrust into the Tower on his return for having failed in the object of the expedition, Cromwell took full advantage of the important annexation of Jamaica, and founded a colony there.

After a long and vigilant watch, Blake's attempts to intercept the great Spanish treasure-ships, which annually voyaged, richly laden, from the gold-mines of Spanish America, were to be successful. Having blockaded Cadiz, Blake and Montague quietly awaited the return of the fleet, and as the first contingent hove in sight the English promptly seized as many ships as possible, and the valuable prizes were dispatched to England under Montague. Blake himself waited, hoping to capture the remainder of the Spanish booty. For more than two years the bold admiral cruised the seas, and then he found the galleons in the strongly armed harbour of Santa Cruz in the Canary Islands. There he fell upon them, under the full fire of their batteries. So skilfully was the attack carried out that not a single English ship was lost, though the Spanish fleet was completely vanquished and burnt. But the brave English admiral had done with naval victories. He breathed his last as the valiant little flag-ship dipped its anchor in the Home Channel.

After the restoration of the monarchy in England

in the person of Charles II., the King's brother, the Duke of York (afterwards James II.), carried on for a time the naval victories of Blake.

Although the Dutch in 1654 had recognised the supremacy of the English Flag in the seas, and had submitted to the Navigation Act, the old commercial jealousy had not abated one jot. In spite of the formal treaty of 1662, mercantile quarrels and disputes were just as frequent. The ceding of Bombay, which opened Indian trade to England, and the chartering of the West India Company in London to traffic with the African Gold Coast, were deeply resented by the Dutch, and open war was declared in 1664.

The Duke of York was in command of the English fleet, and in 1665 the English were successful at an obstinate encounter with the enemy off Harwich ; but in the following year De Ruyter, with a fleet of ninety sail, was at his old tactics in the Channel. Here Monk, with only part of the English fleet—sixty sail all told—encountered him, and, despite inferiority of numbers, instantly gave attack. The odds, however, were too great, and after a terrible two days' fight, by which time the English fleet was well-nigh destroyed, it was reinforced by Prince Rupert. The dauntless Monk insisted on again giving fight, but, outnumbered from the first, the battered remains of the fleet at last reluctantly retreated, and the memorable four days' battle ended in a loss of twenty ships for the

English. The enemy, however, could scarcely claim a victory, so great were their losses, and shortly after Prince Rupert and Monk retaliated by a successful attack on the Dutch fleet off the North Foreland. Meanwhile, between 1664 and 1666, the Duke of York and the Earl of Sandwich had gained four other victories.

But in the next year, 1667, the tables were turned, and England suffered her keenest naval degradation. De Ruyter sailed up the Thames to Sheerness, burned several English warships, and carried off the *Royal Charles*, leaving England to a bitter sense of humiliation. The Peace of Breda followed this daring and highly discomfiting exploit, and no engagement took place between these rival sea-powers for five years. The English then broke the truce by attacking the Dutch Smyrna merchant fleet, and the commercial war broke out afresh between England and Holland.

For the time being the Treaty of Dover had allied France with England. The first engagement between the allies and the Dutch took place in May, 1672, in Southwold Bay, off the Suffolk coast, when a fierce contest ended in the rout of the Dutch under De Ruyter by the combined English and French fleets under the Duke of York, the Earl of Sandwich, and D'Estrées, the French admiral. Although success lay with the allies, they had sustained heavy loss, and a great calamity had occurred. The gallant Earl of Sandwich, sooner than desert his flag-ship which had

been fired, "was blown up with all his crew." In 1673 the action of Sole Bay was followed up by naval operations on the coast of Holland, when two out of the three engagements fought in the Dutch waters were British victories, France, indeed, taking little part.

A change of the Home Ministry brought the war with Holland to an end in 1674, the Dutch agreeing to salute the English Flag. A new policy was adopted on the accession of William III., who naturally favoured Holland, and as naturally resisted the ambition of Louis of France. England now entered upon the long struggle for Colonial mastery with France, a struggle which lasted, with some few breaks, until the battle of Waterloo. For sixty-four years out of the one hundred and twenty-seven, we were at war with France.* Under Louis XIV. France was the dominant power of Europe, with a fleet rivalling that of either of the great sea-powers. Thus it happened that a few years after the second Peace of Westminster (1674) the Dutch and English found themselves allied by the new national policy against the French under Admiral Tourville. In 1690 the allies were destined to sustain a defeat at the hands of the French admiral off Beachy Head in Sussex, on the very day that the battle of the Boyne was fought. This French victory paved the way for Louis's projected scheme of invading England, and the revenge which the allies

* Professor Seeley.

took two years later (1692), when Russell and Rooke triumphantly routed the same French admiral off La Hogue, marks the second occasion upon which England's navy saved her from invasion. As an older race of English seamen had harassed Spain and arrested her dream of crushing England, so now their descendants harassed France, and dispelled King Louis's futile dream of conquering her. But the fortune of war is proverbially doubtful, and the next year the French gained a victory off Cape St. Vincent. Hostilities continued until the Peace of Ryswick, which was signed in 1697.

The next outbreak arose from the extravagant pretensions of the French king to the vacant throne of Spain in 1700; and Queen Anne, on coming to the throne, was bound to join the alliance with Austria and Holland in order to check his dangerous ambition. It was during this war of the Spanish Succession that the famous naval fight between the gallant English admiral, Benbow, and the French under Du Casse took place in 1702, off Cartagena, in South America. Benbow would have gained a complete victory had he not, out of jealousy, been basely deserted by two of his captains. Benbow had his leg shattered by a chain-shot, from which injury he afterwards died at Jamaica; but he refused to be taken below, and fought his ship so desperately for three days that the French ultimately sheered off. The deserters were tried by court-martial and shot.

After the battle Du Casse wrote Benbow the following letter:—

“Cartagena, August 22, 1702.

“SIR,

“I had little hopes on Monday last, but to have supped in your Cabin; yet it pleased God to order it otherwise. I am thankful for it. As for those cowardly Captains who deserted you, hang them up, for by G—d they deserve it.”

The same year witnessed another important French defeat by Sir George Rooke, who daringly entered Vigo harbour, in Spain, where lay a Spanish treasure-fleet, strongly protected by a line of French men-of-war supporting the town's fortifications. Rooke burnt the fleet, and compelled the surrender of the town. In 1704, while commanding the Mediterranean, Sir George Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel stormed and took, after two days' assault, the almost impregnable fortress of Gibraltar. A few months later Rooke fought the French off Malaga, and sank five of their battleships. This in effect changed the tide of war. Two memorable attacks upon Gibraltar had been heroically resisted by Sir John Leake, who took Carthage in 1706, and in 1708 he was successful in adding Minorca to the British possessions—British since the legislative union of England and Scotland in 1707 had changed the national Flag, only, however, to add to its glory.

When the long war of the Spanish Succession and Marlborough's brilliant victories were at last over, Great Britain found herself sole mistress of the ocean, while the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) were greatly to her advantage. Amongst other important concessions, it confirmed her hold upon Minorca and Gibraltar, thereby securing control of the Mediterranean. Our possession of Newfoundland and of Nova Scotia was also recognised, and in other directions great steps had been made in colonial extension.

An attempt on the part of Spain to annex Sicily in 1717 once more broke the peace and led to armed remonstrance by France and England, and accordingly the English admiral, Sir George Byng, was sent in 1718 to attack the Spanish fleet in the Mediterranean. He came in touch with the enemy at Cape Passaro, and completely annihilated the Spanish. The official dispatch announcing the victory is brevity itself. "Sir," it runs, "we have taken or destroyed all the Spanish ships upon this coast, the number as per margin." After suffering various minor reverses at the hands of our navy, Spain was induced to conclude a peace with us in 1720.

Between the years 1720 and 1739 the English Navy was mainly employed in protecting the commercial interest of the nation. It must be confessed that, chafing under the harsh restrictions laid upon the commerce of this country by other nations, our merchants were not over-scrupulous in their attempts to

evade these restrictions, and the exceeding energy of the British trader often took the form of smuggling.

Spain's colonial possessions were the coveted markets in commercial enterprise. The Spanish Government tried hard to prevent the English from trading in Spanish America, but the Spanish colonists, who benefited by the trade with England, encouraged it. Under the Treaty of Utrecht the English, in addition to securing the lucrative *Assiento* (slave-trade) rights, were allowed to send annually one ship of 600 tons with a cargo of English goods to Panama. This right was very largely abused, and the Spanish Government instituted a system of searching our vessels. They even claimed the right to board and search English ships on the high seas.

This action on the part of the Spaniards was, it must be owned, provoked in the first instance by the unscrupulous smuggling of certain British traders. This was lost sight of. As was certain to happen, frequent quarrels arose over this matter of Spanish search. The Spanish coastguards seized and boarded our vessels, and frequently treated their crews with the utmost brutality. Popular anger at the indignities practised by the Spaniards upon English mariners and merchants reached a climax when the case of a certain Captain Jenkins was made the subject of an inquiry in the House of Commons in 1738. Jenkins declared that seven years earlier his ship, which was perfectly guiltless of all smuggling intentions, had

been boarded, and, as a proof of the rough treatment he had endured at the hands of the Spanish coast-guards, he produced an ear and showed it to the House, declaring that it had been torn from his head by one of the Spanish officials. This story created a vast sensation throughout England, and was the actual spark which ignited the fire and led to war.

More than this lay behind the new outbreak with Spain. It was essentially a struggle for Colonial expansion. For one thing, Spain was resolutely opposed to our newly founded Colony of Georgia in North America, alleging that it infringed on the Spanish territory of Florida; Spain also disputed the right of the English logwood-cutters in the Bay of Campeachy, in Central America. These causes combined, popular clamour demanded war with Spain, and war was declared. In 1739 Admiral Vernon carried out a successful surprise attack upon Porto Bello, on the Atlantic side of the Panama isthmus. Admiral Lord Anson in the following year started off on his adventurous voyage round the world. He returned with flying colours, like his predecessor Drake, after spending nearly four years afloat, having successfully accomplished his daring mission. He had been ordered to attack the Spanish possessions in the Pacific, or, indeed, wherever he could, and he had fulfilled his task to the letter, returning richly laden with spoil taken from the enemy.

In the war of the Austrian Succession, which broke

out in Europe (1740-1748), the British Navy did not always distinguish itself. Signs are not wanting to show that lack of discipline had something to do with the reverses. Admiral Vernon, who had won laurels at Porto Bello, was beaten by the Spanish before Cartagena, in South America, and in another attack on Santiago de Cuba he was equally unsuccessful; whilst the English admirals, Matthews and Lestock, owing to a misunderstanding between them, failed before Toulon in an action against the combined fleets of France and Spain. From very different causes the East India Company was compelled to surrender Madras to the French admiral, Labourdonnais, in 1746. But these disasters, and some severe losses on land, were completely wiped out by the two brilliant victories gained by Admirals Anson and the "great Lord Hawke" over the French in 1747 off Finisterre. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, signed in 1748, brought peace, and Great Britain's Colonial and Indian territory was kept inviolate under the settlement, every power giving back its conquests except Prussia. "That England was able to obtain peace on equal terms," says Mr. Crofts, "was entirely owing to her supremacy at sea."

But the naval star of Great Britain was destined to be again in the ascendant. The Colonial rivalry between France and England was approaching war pitch both in India and in North America. At last, in 1756, the Seven Years' War commenced, a

war which lasted until the Treaty of Paris in 1763. During these years of desperate European warfare and struggle for colonial mastery abroad, victory crowned the exertions of both Navy and Army. The British possessions were largely increased, notwithstanding certain losses, the most important of which was the island of Minorca. For his failure to relieve Port Mahon in Minorca, Admiral Byng, son of the victor at Cape Passaro (in 1718), was unjustly accused of cowardice, and shot, "*pour encourager les autres*," satirically remarked Voltaire. Earlier in the year 1757 the French were defeated off Cape François, but an attempt under Bligh upon St. Cas (1758) was disastrous to the English, who, however, were successful shortly afterwards in an assault upon Cherbourg. In 1758, and again in 1759, Admiral Pocock twice defeated the French in the East Indies, with important consequences to the Empire. But now France, frustrated at sea and baffled in her Colonial extension in India because she was unable to hold the lines of communication, determined to invade England and crush her on shore. Once more the vigilance of British admirals averted the threatened danger. Admiral Boscawen made the enemy strike its flag off Port Lagos, on the coast of Portugal. Lord Hawke kept unslumbering and tireless watch upon the French fleet at Brest, and finally his crowning victory over the French admiral, Conflans, in Quiberon Bay in 1759, put an end to the projected invasion.



A NAVAL BATTLE.

French possessions over-sea fell in rapid succession into our sailors' hands. Belle Isle in the Bay of Biscay, Dominica in the West Indies, and Pondicherry in the Carnatic, were all seized.

Spain joined the fray in 1762, as the ally of France, and was once more doomed to spoliation at the hands of British seamen. One of her rich treasure-ships was captured off Cadiz. Admiral Pocock, after a prolonged siege, reduced Havana to submission, and took a large number of ships, together with a money prize amounting to three millions sterling. Great Britain had also wrested Martinique, Grenada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent from the French West Indian possessions, and before the summer was over she had taken the Philippine Islands, with Manilla their capital, from the Spaniards.

At the end of the Seven Years' War Britain had grown into Greater Britain over the seas. By the Treaty of Paris in 1763 she recovered Minorca in exchange for Belle Isle; gave back Havana for Florida; relinquished Martinique, St. Lucia, and Guadeloupe to France, gaining instead possession of Canada, Prince Edward Island, and Cape Breton Island. She retained Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago in the West Indies, and all her conquests in India excepting only Pondicherry and Chandernagore, which were given back to France.

British seamen were not always solely occupied in fighting. Our bold navigators were prompt to

embark on more peaceful enterprises. An English mariner named Dampier has left behind a detailed account of his two adventurous voyages in the reign of William and Mary. He visited South Africa and New South Wales, which had already been discovered by the Dutch.

So now, in the interval of peace following 1763, Cook and his little company sailed in the *Endeavour* to explore the Southern Seas. Before they returned in 1771 they had discovered New Zealand, and had hoisted the British flag as a sign of possession on the eastern coast of Australia!

CHAPTER IV.

LEADING DATES.

- 1775. American War of Independence begins.
- 1776 (July 4). American *Declaration of Independence*.
- 1778. France and Spain in alliance with the American Colonies.
- 1778. Ushant (indecisive).
- 1779-1783. Siege of Gibraltar.
- 1780. Cape St. Vincent (Rodney's victory).
- 1780. Holland joins coalition.
- 1781. Doggerbank (victory).
- 1781. Chesapeake Bay (indecisive).
- 1781. Loss of American Colonies (Cornwallis capitulates at Yorktown).
- 1781. Defeat of Hyder Ali.
- 1782. Rodney's victories in West Indies.
- 1782. French and Spaniards defeated in Bay of Gibraltar.
- 1782. Loss of Port Mahon (Minorca).
- 1782. Gibraltar (final repulse of Allies).
- 1782. Hughes' five naval victories in the Bay of Bengal.
- 1783. Peace of Versailles (Independence of United States acknowledged).
- 1788. Sydney—Australia—founded.
- 1789. French Revolution.
- 1793. France declares war on England.
- 1793. Toulon taken by Lord Hood, but abandoned.
- 1794. Ushant (Lord Howe's victory, June 1st).
- 1794-1795. Corsica (Nelson's victory).
- 1795. L'Orient (victory).
- 1795. Ceylon captured.
- 1796. Saldanha Bay (Cape of Good Hope taken).
- 1796-1797. Spain declared war (political crisis).

- 1796. Corsica and Elba abandoned.
- 1796. French in Bantry Bay.
- 1797. Battle of St. Vincent (Sir John Jervis's victory).
- 1797. Santa Cruz (failure). Teneriffe.
- 1797. Mutiny at the Nore.
- 1797. Battle of Camperdown (Duncan's victory).
- 1798. Minorca recaptured.
- 1798. Battle of the Nile (Nelson's victory).
- 1798. Killala Bay. French land in Ireland.
- 1799. Texel (Dutch fleet surrenders).
- 1799. Acre (Sir Sidney Smith's victory).
- 1800. Malta, French capitulate. (Island becomes British.)
- 1800. Armed neutrality of Northern Powers.
- 1801. Battle of Copenhagen (Nelson's victory).
- 1801. Cadiz (Sir James Saumarez' reverse and subsequent victory).
- 1802. Peace of Amiens.
- 1802. Ceylon ceded.
- 1803. War declared against France.
- 1804. Spain declares war.
- 1804 (May). Napoleon Bonaparte becomes Emperor.
- 1804-1805. Projected French invasion (French forces at Boulogne).
- 1805. Vigilant blockade of the French ports.
- 1805. Nelson in the West Indies.
- 1805. Ferrol (Sir Robert Calder's victory).
- 1805. Battle of Trafalgar (October 21st). Victory and death of Nelson.
- 1805. Ortegál (Sir Richard Strachan's victory).
- 1806. West Indies (Sir John Duckworth's victory).
- 1806. Second capture of the Cape.
- 1806. Battle of Maida (victory).
- 1806. Buenos Ayres taken.
- 1807. European blockade.
- 1807. Seizure of Danish fleet at Copenhagen.
- 1807-1815. England controls commerce of the world.*
- 1807. Disastrous expedition to Egypt.
- 1807. Monte Video stormed and taken by Sir Samuel Auchmuty.
- 1807. Buenos Ayres retaken by Spaniards.

* See Navy League Map.

- 1807. Dardanelles (victory).
- 1807. Copenhagen (victory).
- 1808. Russian fleet surrenders in the Tagus to British.
- 1809. The Basque Roads (Cochrane's daring victory).
- 1809. Walcheren (naval success—military failure).
- 1809. Rosas Bay (victory).
- 1810. Mauritius taken.
- 1811. Lissa (victory).
- 1811. Madagascar (victory).
- 1811. Java taken.
- 1812. L'Orient (victory).
- 1812. America declares war against Great Britain.
- 1812-1814. Victories of American ships, *Constitution*, *United States*, *Wasp*, and *Hornet*—and of the British ships *Shannon*, *Pelican*, *Endymion*, *Phæbe*, and *Cherub*.
- 1813. Lake Erie (defeat).
- 1814. Lake Champlain (defeat).
- 1814. Peace of Vienna.
- 1814. New Zealand recognised as British.
- 1816. Algiers reduced by Lord Exmouth and Baron van Cappellan.
- 1816. Tunis (victory).
- 1820. Mocha (victory).
- 1824. Malacca ceded by Dutch in exchange for Bencoolen (Sumatra), and Singapore purchased.
- 1824-1826. First Burmese war.
- 1827. Battle of Navarino (victory). (*Quadruple Alliance with France, Portugal, and Spain.*)
- 1839. Aden captured.
- 1839-1842. War with China.
- 1839. Hong Kong taken.
- 1840. Acre bombarded and stormed.
- 1841. Canton (victory).
- 1841. Hong Kong ceded to Great Britain.
- 1842. Shanghai (victory).
- 1842. Peace with China.
- 1851-1853. Second Burmese war.
- 1854. Alliance with France against Russia.
- 1854. Odessa bombarded.
- 1854. Crimea (Siege of Sebastopol).
- 1854. Battle of the Alma (victory).
- 1854. Bomarsund (success).

- 1854. Sveaborg (successfully bombarded).
 - 1855. Kertch (success).
 - 1855. Sebastopol taken.
 - 1856. Peace of Paris (with Russia).
 - 1856-1858. Second war with China.
 - 1857. Canton (victory).
 - 1857. Battle of Fatshan (victory).
 - 1857. Sepoy mutiny. Captain Peel's naval brigade.
 - 1859. British repulse before Taku forts.
 - 1859-1860. Third war with China. Taku forts taken.
 - 1860. Kowloon, opposite Hong Kong, ceded.
 - 1864. Shimonoseki (Japan), (victory).
 - 1882. Alexandria (victory).
 - 1882-1885, and 1896, 1899. Egyptian and Soudanese campaigns
 - 1889. Naval Defence Act.
 - 1898. Wei-hai-wei (China) ceded.
 - 1898. Additional territory opposite Hong Kong ceded.
 - 1899. Boer war. Naval brigade. Ladysmith saved.
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“ May the great God, whom I worship ” (wrote Nelson in his diary, as the final act of preparation for Trafalgar), “ grant to my country, and for the benefit of Europe in general, a great and glorious victory ; and may no misconduct in any one tarnish it ; and may humanity after victory be the predominant feature in the British fleet. For myself, individually, I commit my life to Him that made me, and may His blessing alight on my endeavours for serving my country faithfully. To Him I resign myself, and the just cause which is entrusted to me to defend. Amen, Amen, Amen.” *

“ Now, victory to our England !
And where'er she lifts her hand
In Freedom's fight, to rescue Right,
God bless the dear old land !
And when the storm has passed away,
In glory and in calm
May she sit down i' the green o' the day,
And sing her peaceful psalm !
Now, victory to our England !
And where'er she lifts her hand
In Freedom's fight, to rescue Right,
God bless the dear old land ! ”

GERALD MASSEY.

* Quoted in “ Deeds that won the Empire ” (Fitchett).

CHAPTER IV.

GROWTH OF SEA-POWER.

PART II.

THE Peace of Paris, signed in 1763, at the close of the Seven Years' War, left England the proud mistress of the seas; and, as the result of her sea-power, she had risen to a high position amongst the nations. "In the importance of its triumph, the Seven Years' War stood, and remains, without a rival," writes Green. "Three of its many victories determined for ages the destinies of mankind." In the East it secured English ascendancy in India. "The world," to quote Burke's magnificent language, "saw one of the races of the North-West cast into the heart of Asia new manners, new doctrines, new institutions." In the West it ushered in the era of emancipation for the American Colonies from the dread yoke of France. But in order to understand quite clearly the mighty significance of the victories gained over our great neighbour and dangerous rival, France, we must briefly review our previous relations with that country.

In the olden days under the Norman Kings our wars with France had for their object the retention of their French dominions. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries—the days of the great Edwards and Henries, of Cressy and Poitiers, of Agincourt, and the tragedy of Jeanne Darc, or Joan of Arc, as we English render her name—we fought for the French Crown. But English sovereignty in France was destined to be short-lived. In 1422 Henry VI. was proclaimed at St. Denis as “King of France and England.” The crown actually placed on the head of the little English king at Notre Dame in 1431, after his public entry into Paris, had taken a century to win, and it was lost before twenty years expired.* Then England gave up the idea of conquering France, and there was a long interval of something like peace between the two countries—not because England’s monarchs and parliaments were less ambitious, less alert, or less enterprising. Under the Tudors—the two Henries and the mighty Elizabeth—England’s ambition, as we have seen, assumed a new potentiality. It led her further abroad, and commercial adventure and the attempts to open markets in the New World “brought her into collision, not with France, but with Spain and Holland, and therefore wars with Spain and Holland take the place of wars with France.”† During the greater part of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries

* Mr. Hamilton Williams.

† Professor Ransome.

we were more or less on friendly terms with the French Court, whatever may have been the attitude of English and French seamen towards each other, and little fighting of importance occurred between us and our fair neighbour across the Channel from the loss of Calais, in the reign of Queen Mary, until after the accession of William III. But by William's time the Bourbon dynasty had reached its full splendour. Under the autocratic and ambitious rule of Louis XIV., France, more puissant than ever before in her history, built a splendid navy, and inaugurated a career of wholesale conquest. To check the dangerous preponderance of the French, William III., in 1691, entered into the Grand Alliance with the Germanic States, and with Holland and Spain, with the result that Louis's dream of colonial empire and commercial ascendancy was eventually shattered by a great European war. Narrowing the vast scale of conflict to the struggle between England and France only, it may be said that a vigorous mercantile and colonial war began between these two maritime Powers at this juncture. War and conquest were carried by fire and blood, and the two peoples were at each other's throats for more than half a century. "From 1689 to 1815 we were engaged in seven great wars, the longest of which lasted twelve years, the shortest seven. These wars either began as wars with France, or invariably soon became so."* We were at war with France for

* "Our Colonies and India," by Cyril Ransome, M.A. Oxon.

sixty-four years out of the one hundred and twenty-seven years between the accession of William of Orange and the Battle of Waterloo.*

The struggle commenced in Europe, it raged in India, it went on in North America. It was a struggle for national existence. "We were forced to fight," says Professor Ransome, "by the strongest instincts of humanity—the instinct of self-preservation." In India, where France had wrestled mightily with us for political and commercial supremacy, England's sea-power had virtually freed England from all serious European rivals when the Peace of Paris was signed in 1763.† By that time Plassey had been won, and English power in India showed itself too firmly planted to be shaken even by the frantic European storm which broke out later on, in 1781, when France made her final descent on the coast of India, at a time when England was fighting single-handed against France, Spain, Holland, and her own American Colonies. Thus the Seven Years' War consolidated our growing power in India by effectually shattering the formidable rivalry of our ambitious French neighbour in the Asiatic peninsula. Whilst in America, where France had held vast tracts of territory in a feudal grasp of iron, and where she had drawn a hard and relentless barrier, hemming in the English Colonies to the sea-coast, Wolfe's crowning triumph

* Sir J. R. Seeley.

† "Rise of the British Dominion in India," by Sir Alfred Lyall.

on the Heights of Abraham threw open the basins of the Mississippi and of the St. Lawrence, and the submission of Canada, following the capture of Montreal, destroyed the dream of a French Empire in America.

With the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1763 the story of the United States begins. And he would be a poor Briton who could contemplate without feelings of admiration and pride the splendid triumphs of a people sprung from the loins of his own ancestors. Britons the Americans originally were, and in the imagination of the true Englishman kinsmen they ever will remain. His heart goes out to them in the way that it does to no other people.

But the opening pages of this history are painful. Before the Seven Years' War, France "owned in North America the country through which the chain of great lakes which empty themselves into the St. Lawrence flows, and also the valley of the Mississippi ; they claimed, besides, the territory which lay between the two—that is to say, they blocked the English Colonies on the north, on the south, and towards the west, and they showed the greatest determination to keep the English Colonists to their little strip of sea-coast between the mountains and the Atlantic. The Colonists resented this, and they were constantly fighting the French, even when the mother countries were at peace." * The Peace of Paris, however,

* Professor Ransome.

removed all fear of France, and the Colonies were free to develop and spread inland.

"The presence of the French in Canada, their designs in the West, had thrown America for protection on the Mother Country," says Green. Now that all fear of France was at an end there was no longer need for the protection of the Mother Country, and the very victory which rid them of the danger loosened the tie which had kept them in union with England. The dissatisfaction which for some time had been gathering in our American Colonies, owing to certain oppressive restrictions imposed by the Mother Country, at last broke into open resistance. Two main causes led to the outbreak. The one, England's prohibition on their trade with the Spanish Colonies, they might and did qualify, as far as possible, by a thick coating of smuggling; but the other created a deeper smart, and here no byways or evasion might be found. Harassed by the expenditure of the long wars—wars incurred for the sake of the Colonies themselves, and towards the cost of which it was fair they should contribute—England insisted on the right of Parliament to tax the American Colonies. "The Colonies would have paid," says Professor Ransome, "but they claimed, like other Englishmen, to vote their own taxes, and not to have them levied by an arbitrary ruler, such as the British Parliament was to them." In forcing taxation where there was no representation, England "broke the grand barriers of British

liberty,"* and shattered the traditional bonds which had hitherto attached the American Colonies to her side. Those stalwart sons clung still to the Mother Country, but they had passed the age of tutelage. They had their own assemblies, and these denied the right of the British Parliament to tax the Colonists without their consent. And the sad civil war—for, after all, it was that—began.

On July 4th, 1776, the United States of America raised the flag of rebellion, and the Confederation of the United States was declared.

Troubles thickened fast for us. In February, 1778, France, who had by no means forgotten her humiliation of the Seven Years' War, took up the cause of the revolted American Colonies, and dispatched ships and troops to their assistance. England immediately sent Admiral Keppel to intercept the reinforcements, and before war actually broke out with France an indecisive engagement took place near Ushant. This was the occasion of the famous frigate fight between the *Saucy Arethusa* and *La Belle Poule*, which took place off Brest. After a grim, dogged, and thrilling two hours' fight, perhaps unrivalled amongst sea duels for its audacity and daring, the Frenchman, a splendid ship twice the size and numbers of the *Arethusa*, eventually slipped away out of reach, under cover of the night.

The conflict widened; Spain had an old score to

* Green.

pay off against us also. We had wrested Gibraltar from her, so at the end of the year 1778 our ancient enemy also joined the league with America. Thus, with France and Spain allied against us, the position was critical indeed. , Once more came the danger of an invasion by the combined Powers, and that at a time when our fleet was scattered in distant seas, and the Home Ministry was weak. Happily, the projected invasion fell through, with little more than a scare.

A new fleet was hastily fitted out, and placed in command of Admiral Rodney. Carrying supplies of food and ammunition, Rodney sailed in January, 1780, to Gibraltar to the relief of the heroic Eliott, who had been closely invested since July, 1779. On the way Rodney achieved two important victories. First he encountered some Spanish provision-ships and their escort of warships, which he captured off Cape Finisterre ; and not long after he chased and compelled an engagement with another large Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, with so deadly a result to the enemy that seven surrendered, and only four of the vessels escaped to Cadiz. After carrying out the first part of his mission, and relieving Eliott at Gibraltar, Rodney set sail for the West Indies, and cleverly ousted the French fleet from its haven at Martinique.

Holland and the Northern Courts, vexed over the right of search question, now added the Dutch fleet to the allied enemies of Britain, and a fierce and close

naval encounter with the Dutch took place off Dogger Bank in 1781. The fleets fought till their ships were dismasted, and their men could fight no longer, then at last, the Dutch retired, and Sir Hyde Parker, the English admiral, who had been recalled from the West Indies to protect the Channel, was left master of the field.

Rodney, meanwhile, had splendidly maintained English supremacy in the Western Seas. He now returned, leaving his colleagues, Admirals Hood and Graves, cruising off the American coast, their object being to relieve the troops who were fighting against the Colonists. A great naval battle with the French ensued in Chesapeake Bay in 1781, and Graves was killed. Though the engagement itself was indecisive, its consequences were far-reaching and momentous. The French admiral, De Grasse, so promptly reinforced the French fleet and locked the sea communication, that Lord Cornwallis, who had counted on De Grasse being held at bay, was compelled to surrender, and the independence of the American Confederation became an accomplished fact.

Elsewhere, we had suffered loss. Minorca and Florida had been taken by Spain, and France had been a successful spoiler in the West Indies. De Grasse's successes in the West, however, were to be foiled. Rodney was once more sailing the same waters, and the two famous admirals met off Dominica in April, 1782, and after a most gallant

fight the French were utterly defeated, five ships were taken, another was sunk, and De Grasse was sent a prisoner to England.

The brave General Eliott, despite the most overwhelming odds, still held Gibraltar in the teeth of that fiery siege which had been kept up since July, 1779. Twice the beleaguered garrison had been relieved in the very nick of time—in January, 1780, by Rodney ; and in April, 1781, by Admiral Darby. Lord Howe was now dispatched with fresh supplies. He arrived shortly after the heroic garrison had successfully withstood the fiercest and last attack of the Spanish and French fleets and armies, though the siege itself only ended with the war.*

In this and in the following year (1783) the French fleet, under the able Suffren, was beaten by the English commander Hughes, in no less than five decided actions in the Bay of Bengal, and the sea-power of England again saved the situation at a critical moment of history. Jealous of England's political ascendancy in India, France had welcomed the Mahrattas' uprising as a means towards damaging her rival's prestige in native eyes, and ruining her possessions ; but the alertness and seamanship of English naval commanders, backed by the fearlessness of their men, robbed the French negotiations with Hyder Ali of all value, and France was effectually prevented from giving any assistance to our foe.

* " Britain on and beyond the Sea," by Cecil Crofts, M.A.

The Treaty of Versailles, in 1783, brought peace at last. True, Florida and Minorca were ceded to Spain, and—worst of all—the American Colonies had torn themselves free, and England staggered at the shock. But we who live after the great burst of passionate feeling which succeeded the separation has softened on both sides, know that England has now a truer, deeper insight into the early quarrel. In the Anglo-American patriots' struggle for freedom she hears again the echo of her own struggles, and she knows that the children whom she has begotten have inherited from herself the grand, impelling love of liberty which has been her own dominant characteristic, and she is more than content.

But if England had lost her American Colonies, she had gained in India, Canada was her own, her West Indian possessions were restored, her naval supremacy was established, and shortly afterwards, in 1788, the foundations of her great Australian Colonies were laid by the settlement of New South Wales and the creation of Sydney.

Only ten years was Great Britain to enjoy the blessings of peace. In 1789 the baneful blaze of the terrible French Revolution flashed up to heaven, crimsoned Europe with blood, and shook the political and social world of that day to its very foundations. The French revolutionists, disappointed in their hope of receiving support from the English Ministry, sought by means of French agents to incite in the subjects

of the British Crown at home, and to foster in Ireland and in India, a rebellious spirit which should weaken the authority of the Government of Great Britain. Further, the French Government, in defiance of the recent treaties, attacked Holland, and England had no choice but to interfere, even had not France taken the initiative, and issued a Declaration of War in February, 1793.

It was in this war that the great power of Britain at sea was to be demonstrated, and it was through it that our Empire was to be largely extended. "We went into it stripped of our Colonies," says Professor Ransome; "we came out of it with a new Colonial Empire."

England's first step in the new war was to send aid to the French Loyalists, and in 1793 a fleet under Lord Hood was dispatched to protect Toulon. This, however, was impossible, owing to lack of men. The harbour was taken, but had to be abandoned after destroying the French warships, on the appearance of 60,000 French troops under Napoleon Bonaparte. The attempt was not futile, however, as a blow had been struck at French sea-power in the Mediterranean.

On the 1st of June, 1794—"the glorious First of June," as it is called in history—Lord Howe defeated the French under Admiral Villaret Joyeuse off Ushant. It was as fierce a fight as was ever won by our gallant seamen. The loss on the French side was 7000, and 1200 on that of the British. The

French also lost seven men-of-war. The British victories at sea about this time came so thick upon one another that it is difficult to enumerate them. Sir John Jervis, co-operating with Sir Charles Guy, the military commander, was busy in the West Indies, where Martinique, St. Lucia, and Guadeloupe were taken from France. And Nelson, serving under Lord Hood, had his first triumph, and succeeded in taking Corsica in 1795.

In 1795-96 the French, with the Dutch, who had been compelled to join them, were worsted in a long series of engagements. Lord Bridport, co-operating with Admiral Cornwallis, gained a signal victory off Port L'Orient in 1795. This year saw the capture of Ceylon from the Dutch, afterwards ceded to us in 1802, but the most important of our victories in its results was the conquest of Cape Colony, which had been held by Holland since 1648. In 1795 the Colony was taken by the British under Admiral Elphinstone and General Clarke. An attempt by the Dutch, in 1796, to regain possession was wholly unsuccessful, and their fleet, being confronted by overwhelming numbers, surrendered to Sir George Keith Elphinstone in Saldanha Bay. This capitulation led to the founding of our Colony at the Cape of Good Hope.

Spain now joined the enemies of England with "the mightiest fleet ever sent from Spanish ports" since the proud Armada of 1588, and the powerful

coalition prepared to make a tremendous effort to destroy our naval power, and to follow up the fight on the seas by an invasion of our shores. So critical was the position that Sir John Jervis abandoned Corsica and Elba (1796), which had been captured by Nelson shortly before, and waited in the harbour of Gibraltar. Meanwhile Britain's only chance of escape lay in that "streak of silver sea" separating her from her foes, and in the energy and skill of her courageous seamen and their sleepless guard. An invasion of Ireland, where was great discontent, and where consequently an easy foothold was expected, was the first move. On December 17th an enormous French fleet, carrying an army of 20,000 men under the command of Hoche, set sail for Bantry Bay, only to be dispersed at sea by storms. Seven sail of the line and two frigates, as well as seventeen transports, did indeed anchor in the bay for a few days, but no landing was effected.

These were terrible days in England. If once the fleets of the coalition were allowed to meet for combined action, Napoleon's scheme of invading our shores was in danger of being fulfilled. At so anxious a crisis the glorious victory in February, 1797, off Cape St. Vincent by Sir John Jervis, who must divide the honours of the day with Commodore Nelson, was hailed with enthusiastic thankfulness at home. Under Don Cordova, "the Spanish fleet sailed from Cadiz to execute a daring and splendid

strategy. He was to pick up the Toulon fleet, brush away the English squadron blockading Brest, add the great French fleet lying imprisoned there to his forces, and enter the British Channel with above a hundred sail of the line under his flag to sweep in triumph to the mouth of the Thames. . . . Sir John Jervis was lying in the track of the Spaniards to defeat this ingenious plan." * The English admiral had moved out of the harbour of Gibraltar, and awaited the coming of the Spaniards off Cape St. Vincent.

"A better fleet never carried the fortunes of a great country than that under Sir John Jervis," Nelson himself bore testimony, Dr. Fitchett tells us. The enemy had twenty-seven ships, the English fifteen—enormous odds; yet, having sighted the Spanish off Cape St. Vincent, Sir John Jervis gave instant attack, and after a swift and magnificent fight the Spaniards were completely defeated. Four of their vessels were captured and others were sunk, principally owing to a skilful manœuvre of Nelson's, which he performed without waiting for orders. Calder, Jervis's captain, complained to the admiral that Nelson had "disobeyed orders." "He certainly did," Jervis replied, "and if ever you commit such a breach of your orders, I will forgive you also." † Jervis for this important victory was created Earl St. Vincent.

The same year the name of Nelson comes again to the front—the greatest name on the long roll of

* See "Deeds that won the Empire."

† *Ibid.*

Britain's brave and heroic admirals. Nelson had been sent to capture the Canary Islands from Spain, but his attack upon Santa Cruz was disastrous owing to the troops for which he had asked having been refused. The British storming party, although it captured the town, was hopelessly outnumbered and suffered heavily. It was here that the gallant Nelson lost his right arm. Trowbridge, who took the command when Nelson was wounded, came to terms with the Spaniards, and was permitted to march off his 400 sailors in the face of 8000 of the enemy without molestation.

Meanwhile the Dutch fleet, eager to get to sea and join her Spanish and French allies, had all this long time been tightly imprisoned and kept from doing us mischief by the English admiral, Duncan, who, with sleepless vigilance, blockaded the harbour where she lay waiting. In October of this year (1797), De Winter, the Dutch admiral, contrived to slip out, but only to be chased and overtaken by Duncan at Camperdown, off the Texel, in Holland, where, after a grim and deadly fight, bravely contested, the Dutch fleet was shattered to pieces. For his valiant services at Camperdown, Admiral Duncan was raised to the peerage as Viscount Duncan of Camperdown.

But these splendid operations had narrowly escaped wreckage by a serious mutiny amongst the British fleet stationed in home waters, an occurrence which created a grave national peril. Up to this time it

was a notorious scandal that our seamen were ill-paid and ill-fed ; if sick, or even wounded, their pay was stopped ; and flogging was constant for the most trivial offence. The traditions of the Navy were harsh and despotic to a degree, beginning with the seaman's forced service under the system of impressment, and the terrible mutinies that every now and again broke out on the high seas are attributable to the cruelties possible under the naval system of that day. If the captain of a vessel happened to be a tyrant, his men had to endure his brutal treatment as best they could. In April, 1797, the fleet at Spithead—fifteen sail of the line—under Lord Bridport, who was looking after the French while our other admirals kept watch elsewhere, finding that their petitions for an increase of wages and other redress were unheeded by the Admiralty, refused to go to sea. But the influence of Lord Howe, who was extremely popular and loved and trusted by every man in the Navy, and the promises of the Admiralty that justice should be done, induced the men to return to their duty, and they put to sea on May 17.

But a far more serious mutiny broke out directly afterwards amongst the fleet at the Nore, stationed there to guard the Thames. Here the men demanded, not merely the redress of their actual grievances, but they asked to be allowed to vote on "the movements of their own ships even in the presence of an enemy ;" *

* See Gardiner's "Student's History of England."

and they proceeded to blockade the mouth of the Thames to enforce their demands at the critical moment when England's tremendous struggle with the great military power of France, supported by the allied fleets, was at its height. The mutiny spread to Duncan's fleet, holding that stiff blockade off the Texel, and at one supreme moment the English admiral was left with but one vessel besides his own, all the rest having deserted, most of them to join the mutineers at the Nore. Not to be daunted, the plucky sailor kept his one ship busy signalling to an imaginary fleet out of sight, and by this ruse he sustained the blockade until such a time as he had a fleet once more.

Lord Rosebery, in his "Life of Pitt," draws attention to "the temper of perfect equanimity in which that illustrious statesman met the tremendous national peril created by the mutiny at the Nore." The vigorous action of Government speedily brought the mutineers to task. Parker, the chief instigator of the rising, and seventeen ringleaders, were hanged, but the rest of the crews submitted to their officers and returned to their ships, and thereafter fought and conquered, as history shows.

Jervis and Nelson had won St. Vincent, and now Duncan won Camperdown. Thus both the fleets of Spain and Holland were driven from the field. France now remained to have her further plans of conquest more hopelessly frustrated by the brilliant

victories of Nelson than either of these Powers, who were simply pawns in the hands of Bonaparte. "That statesman," says Professor Ransome, "never looked on England as a merely European power: he always regarded her as a world-wide Empire; and his great aim was to ruin her as such by attacking India and our Colonial Empire. 'This old Europe tires me,' he said,"* and his astute brain turned to schemes of destroying English ascendancy in India. His subtle statesmanship promptly grasped the importance of securing Egypt by the way, and this preliminary step to the conquest of India he, in part, successfully accomplished. In 1798 Bonaparte landed in Egypt with a powerful army, and Egypt's fate was apparently decided, when the appearance of Nelson turned the tide of events, and overthrew the conqueror's dream of India.

"Aboukir Bay," Dr. Fitchett tells us in his own delightful manner, infusing life into the picture he draws for us, "resembles nothing so much as a piece bitten out of the Egyptian pancake. A crescent-shaped bay, patchy with shoals, stretching from the Rosetta mouth of the Nile to Aboukir, or, as it is now called, Nelson Island, that island being simply the outer point of a sandbank that projects from the western horn of the bay. Flat shores, grey-blue Mediterranean waters, two horns of land six miles apart, that to the north projecting farthest and

* "Our Colonies and India," by Cyril Ransome, M.A. Oxon.

forming a low island—this, ninety-eight years ago, was the scene of what might almost be described as the greatest sea-fight in history.”

In Aboukir Bay, on August 1st, 1798, Admiral Bruéys and a French fleet of thirteen men-of-war and four frigates lay moored in one long chain, their line strongly guarded by batteries and gunboats. The first part of Napoleon's programme for his Egyptian expedition was accomplished. In spite of Nelson's vigilance the great Toulon fleet had given him the slip, and Napoleon's army had landed in Egypt, and here in Aboukir Bay lay the great warships and transports, whilst Nelson scoured the narrow seas in search of the vanished enemy. “After nearly three months of pursuit,” Nelson overtook his prey. He discovered their topsails at last as they lay in Aboukir Bay, and there ensued the important battle of the Nile, a fight so magnificent and far-reaching that it figures as one of the greatest of naval conflicts. At its close the French fleet was practically destroyed, only two battleships escaping. To France the loss was irrecoverable. Besides the destruction of her fleet, Nelson had cut off her lines of communication with the vast army now virtually imprisoned in Egypt, and had frustrated Napoleon's projected conquest of India. In recognition of this splendid victory, Nelson was raised to the peerage as Baron Nelson of the Nile, and a pension of £2000 a year was voted him by Parliament.

Nearer home, in 1798, a French landing on the Irish coast at Killala Bay, in Mayo, although at first successful, ended in the complete surrender of the invaders, and a large fleet in the same year was defeated off the same shores by Sir John Warren. Nor was Holland more fortunate. Her navy had now recovered from the disaster of Camperdown, but in 1799, at the Texel, Admiral Mitchell was so fortunate as to fall in with the Dutch fleet as it escorted thirteen of their East India Company's merchantmen returning home richly laden, and after little resistance all surrendered. It was in this year that the gallant Nelson, co-operating with the allied forces on land, did valuable service in helping Italy to shake off Napoleon's power.

But it was not only off the Irish, Dutch, and Italian coasts that the British Navy upheld the honour of Britain. The year 1799 witnessed the gallant sixty-four days' defence of Acre by British seamen and Turks under Sir Sidney Smith, in consequence of which brilliant resistance Bonaparte, who commanded in person, was again foiled in his designs upon the East. Malta, snatched by him on his way to Egypt, surrendered to the British in 1800, and the "meteor flag" was once more supreme. In addition, the carrying trade of her rivals had come into Great Britain's hands, leaving her mistress of the Colonial trade of the globe—a proud position, but, needless to say, it was a development peculiarly distasteful to the other Powers.

France now tried to damage British prestige through her sea-borne trade, and to carry out this project the Northern Powers, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia, moved by Bonaparte and incited by the old vexed question of the British right of search, formed a league against Great Britain, and "asserted the rights of neutrals to carry on the coasting and colonial trade of nations at war. The flag, it was claimed, covered the cargo; 'free bottoms made free goods;' the flag of a neutral convoy protected the ship under convoy from search." *

Before, however, any combination of the allied fleets could take place, Britain had begun to act on the defensive. Early in 1801 Sir Hyde Parker, with Nelson as second in command, bombarded Copenhagen, and out of twenty-three ships of the line eighteen were either taken or destroyed by the British, and the Danish fleet was completely broken up. "I have been in a hundred and five engagements, but that of to-day is the most terrible of them all," Nelson declared, as the battle raged. "The Danes," writes Dr. Fitchett, "fought in sight of their capital, under the eyes of their wives and children. It is not strange that through the four hours during which the thunder of the great battle rolled over the roofs of Copenhagen, and up the narrow waters of

* "How England saved Europe," by W. H. Fitchett, B.A., LL.D.

the Sound, human valour and endurance in both fleets were at their very highest." *

It was during this memorable fight that Admiral Parker, seeing Nelson hard pressed and unable to render help, signalled to him to retire. Nelson, putting his telescope to his blind eye, which he had lost in an attack upon Calvi, when taking Corsica, replied that he did not see the admiral's signal, and kept his own signal for closer action flying. After four hours' terrific fire, the brave Danes, our gallant foes, hoisted the white flag, since their battered ships could hold out no longer. As the result of the battle of the Baltic, the Danish fleet was completely wrecked. It could no longer be utilised by Napoleon as an additional weapon against us; and Napoleon's naval designs and the League of Armed Neutrality were brought to an abrupt end by our victory at Copenhagen and the assassination of Paul I. of Russia, which occurred at this moment. Fresh honours were showered on Nelson, who was made a viscount.

It was about this time that Sir James Saumarez's brief defeat at the hands of the French off Cadiz, when he had to retire from the attack, the enemy capturing one of his ships, had an unusual sequel. A few days later, Saumarez fell in with the same fleet, and promptly attacked, completely wiping out the earlier defeat by a brilliant victory, and regaining the vessel he had lost. This was the last naval action

* "Deeds that won the Empire."

before the Peace of Amiens, which was signed in 1802.

But Napoleon was still bent on the overthrow of Great Britain, and open hostilities were barely suspended. French aggressions and extravagant pretensions increased, and, in spite of the Peace Treaty, extraordinary preparations were made on the other side of the Channel for an invasion of Britain. In 1803 the British Government could forbear no longer, and they declared war. With the knowledge that the veterans of the French Grand Army were ready to embark for these shores, Britain's military strength, backed though it was by numbers of enthusiastic volunteers, seemed but weak. Once more it was on her Navy that Britain had to place chief reliance. The old tactics of weakening the sea-power of the intending invader by blockading their fleets before they could combine, and incessant watchfulness at sea, went on hand in hand with every possible contrivance of defence ashore. But, to make matters worse, at the close of the year 1804 Spain also declared war against us, and thus a double fleet was at Napoleon's service.

Nelson was in command of the Mediterranean, blockading its ports; a ruse, however, drew him from his position before Toulon, whence he sailed to the West Indies in pursuit of the French admiral, Villeneuve. With much adroitness, Villeneuve, having succeeded in detaching the chief English fleet, hastened to complete the manœuvre by slipping back

to Cadiz, together with a Spanish squadron that was bound for the same enterprise, intending to join the French fleet off Boulogne. This was in 1805.

Sir Robert Calder at the moment was keeping a vigilant watch over the port of Ferrol, off Spain, and directly the combined French and Spanish squadrons were sighted he daringly forced them to an engagement, though his own force consisted of but fifteen sail, whilst the enemy numbered twenty. Calder, however, was the victor, and not only captured two of the enemy's ships, but compelled Villeneuve to retreat southward. The Spanish squadron got clear off, and united itself once more with Villeneuve.

The British temper was hyper-sensitive under the terrific strain of those troubled times, and Sir Robert Calder was censured because he had failed to accomplish more, since with a fleet of fifteen sail he had only captured two out of the enemy's twenty ships!

Meanwhile, Continental pressure had broken up the projected French invasion of Britain. Villeneuve, with a strong fleet of twenty-nine sail, lay in Cadiz harbour, while Collingwood, with amazing audacity, hung round and kept a sleepless watch over every movement of the enemy. This was the position when Nelson returned from his fruitless chase to the West Indies. After two days at home, Nelson set sail on Villeneuve's track, and found him lying idle in Cadiz. On October 20th Villeneuve left the



LORD NELSON.
After the Painting by HOPNER.

harbour, and the great historic sea-fight took place the next day (October 21st, 1805). Nelson's famous signal, "England expects every man to do his duty" was nobly answered, and there was won for Britain the glorious victory of Trafalgar, in which our greatest naval hero, Lord Nelson, was killed after the most dazzlingly brilliant, as it was the most momentous, naval action of that or any other age.

The united French and Spanish fleets numbered thirty-three ships of the line and seven frigates. Nelson had only twenty-seven sail of the line and four frigates. Notwithstanding this disparity of force, the British captured or destroyed nineteen of the enemies' vessels, while Villeneuve himself was taken prisoner. Never was defeat more complete. "England" had indeed "saved herself by her courage." This all-important engagement assured to Britain the sovereignty of the seas, which since that memorable occasion has been practically undisputed.

A few minor actions occurred after the battle of Trafalgar. Sir Richard Strachan chased a French squadron, and succeeded in capturing four ships of the line, off Cape Ortegal; and in the West Indies the French were defeated by Sir John Duckworth, who also took three of the enemy's ships. More important in its political results was the recapture of Capetown, which had been given back to the Dutch in 1802. This valuable territory, destined to play a prominent part hereafter in the history of the Empire,

was re-taken in 1806 by the combined action of the British military and naval forces.

To return, however, to Europe. Napoleon, baffled in all his plans against Great Britain, strove once more to cut off her trade by closing all ports under his influence against her. The means that he adopted failed of their project, but they naturally led to offensive action on our part. In 1807 Sir John Duckworth forced the passage of the Dardanelles as a remonstrance with Turkey, who had, in obedience to France, closed the Bosphorus against Russia. Duckworth failed to follow up his advantage, and sustained severe losses as he retired.

Great Britain played a much bolder stroke in self-defence against a probable coalition when, in 1807, she used both her military and naval power to capture the Danish fleet off Copenhagen, and so rendered Denmark harmless, seizing also the island of Heligoland, a Danish possession in the German Ocean.

The years 1806 and 1807 saw several expeditions sent by Great Britain to foreign shores under the protection of the Navy, some of which were successful and some decidedly the reverse.

In 1806 Major-General Sir John Stuart landed with a small British force in Calabria, and signally defeated a French army nearly double his own strength under Regnier at Maida. The same year a British fleet and army under Sir Home Popham and General Beresford took Buenos Ayres, in South America; and in

February, 1807, Monte Video was stormed and taken by Sir Samuel Auchmuty ; but in July of the same year, owing to the incapacity of General Whitelocke, the British were driven out of Buenos Ayres with great slaughter, and had to evacuate the country. Another unsuccessful expedition was sent to Egypt under General Fraser in the same year. Our force was defeated and captured by Mehemet Ali, the heads of some of our unfortunate soldiers being exposed on poles in the principal square of Cairo. These are incidents which Britons would rather forget. They were caused, however, by the incapacity of the leaders, and not by any want of bravery either on the part of the troops or sailors.

In 1808 the Russian fleet in the Tagus was taken by our Navy without a shot being fired. In the following year (1809) a successful action under the daring Cochrane in the Basque Roads stopped a reinforcement for Martinique, which a British squadron was attacking, and practically put an end to the last effective remnant of the French fleet.

A powerful expedition against Napoleon's new dockyard and arsenals at Antwerp began well in 1809, but its fortress was deemed too strong for an attack. The island of Walcheren, which had been taken, and which had cost us many valuable lives through incompetent leadership, was at last abandoned as unhealthy. In 1810 the important island of Mauritius was taken by General Abercrombie, an operation

which lost us four frigates. The Dutch island of Java also fell into our hands in the following year ; and in 1812 a successful engagement took place off L'Orient.

Our seamen were by this time so confident of victory that they did not hesitate to attack even when, as we have seen, greatly inferior in strength to their enemy ; but, the fleets of other Powers being reduced, naval warfare was restricted in the main to single conflicts, wherein, however, great daring and seamanship were often displayed. Thus, a single frigate, the *Spartan*, gallantly engaged a force of seven French vessels in the Bay of Biscay ; Lord Cochrane, commanding the *Speedy*, a sloop of 158 tons, with fourteen small guns and fifty-one men, boarded and captured the *Gamo*, a Spanish man-of-war of thirty-two guns and three hundred men ; and Captain Barrett, in a merchant vessel, the *Cumberland*, with twenty-six men, defeated four privateers and took a hundred and twenty prisoners. No less heroic was the brilliant victory gained by Captain Hoste off the island of Lissa in 1811. But it is impossible to enumerate the many isolated frigate actions that took place at sea, or those smaller successful expeditions which for a time added to our possessions.

The war between Britain and America, which broke out in 1812, originated in the right claimed by Great Britain of searching neutral vessels—a policy forced upon her in large measure by Napoleon's efforts to

crush British commerce. It was a miserable war, and though our Navy bore a conspicuous part, they suffered a good many reverses. Twice our sailors were defeated on the inland lakes of America, on Lake Erie in 1813, and on Lake Champlain in 1814, and we lost several vessels in single combat. Britain's naval honour was redeemed, however, by Captain Broke's victory in the famous duel between H.M.S. *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake*. Britain and America had already agreed upon a cessation of hostilities when the Peace of Vienna terminated the great European war. Under the readjustment of Colonial possessions of 1814, Great Britain retained the Dutch Colonies of the Cape and Ceylon, as also Malta, Heligoland, the Ionian Isles, Mauritius, Trinidad, and Tobago. The rest of her recent conquests were restored, and New Zealand was recognised as British.

Our flag claiming now the supremacy of the seas, it was determined to make an effort to put down the pirates that swarmed from the coast of Barbary and swept the Mediterranean. Accordingly, Lord Exmouth, assisted by a Dutch squadron under Baron van Cappellan, who met the British fleet at Gibraltar, and who requested permission to be allowed to join the expedition, attacked Algiers in 1816, and after fierce resistance reduced it, and compelled a surrender of all white captives and slaves, and a promise to abandon piracy on the high seas. Nearly 1100 Europeans were released, among

whom were twenty-eight Dutchmen and eighteen Englishmen. These men had suffered every conceivable hardship and misery. How great was their joy at the unlooked-for deliverance may be better imagined than described. The rescue, which was not effected without loss of life, is not the least noble of the many splendid achievements of the British Navy.

From Algiers Lord Exmouth sailed to Tunis on a like mission, and Mocha was taught a similar lesson in 1820. Piracy did not wholly cease, however, and blackmail still continued for a time to be paid to the ruthless corsairs of the Mediterranean by some European nations.

After recording the Titanic naval struggles of the past Napoleonic war, it seems almost too unimportant a matter to mention that the British Navy rendered valuable, though comparatively insignificant, services to the army in the first Burmese war of 1824, and that in this year Malacca was ceded to Britain by the Dutch in exchange for Bencoolen, in Sumatra, and that Singapore was purchased.

The next really important naval conflict was on behalf of the Greeks of the Peloponnesus, who after long years of terrible oppression at the hands of the Turks, had revolted in 1821. Despite the sympathy of the nation at large and individual help, the British Government held to a peace policy until 1827, when the atrocities of Ibrahim Pacha, the adopted son of Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt, could no longer be

allowed to go unpunished. The Egyptian troops devastated the soil, slaying or capturing the inhabitants as they went. Profoundly touched by the heroic struggle made by the hapless Greeks for independence, we were stirred at last to back up our sympathy with substantial aid; and the fleets of France and Russia joined ours, under Admiral Codrington, to do battle in defence of the Greek Christians of the Morea against the combined Turkish and Egyptian forces. In 1827 Codrington and his allies sailed into the Bay of Navarino, the blue waters of which, 2200 years before, had seen the famous contest between the Athenians and Lacedæmonians. A fierce fight ended in a decisive victory for Britain and her alliès.

A British ship having been wrecked and plundered at Aden, in Arabia, this Gibraltar of the East was captured by Captain Smith of the *Volage* in 1839, and has ever since been held as a valuable stronghold and coaling depôt on the road to India.

Turkey brought about our next naval experience. The Pacha of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, the Sultan's Viceroy, had asserted an independence that aimed at nothing less than detaching Egypt from its Suzerain, and creating it a separate state, with himself as ruler. To help Turkey against Mehemet Ali, Sir Robert Stopford was sent in 1840 to bombard Acre, where the rebel's troops were awaiting the Egyptian fleet. Another British squadron blockaded

the expected Egyptian reinforcement. Meanwhile the fleet under Stopford stormed Acre, and took it after a few hours' fighting, in which the Egyptians lost more than two thousand men by death or wounds, and as many were taken prisoners, while only twelve of the British were killed and fifty-two wounded.

Warfare now began for the first time with China (1839-42), where British commercial intercourse had become much strained, owing to the Chinese Government's measures for putting down the opium trade, and their treatment of our merchants. The large military force sent out to compel China to give way was accompanied by a powerful naval detachment, which greatly distinguished itself. In 1839 Hong-Kong was captured, and in 1841 it was ceded to Great Britain, Canton was surrendered, and China sued for peace, with the concession that the ports of Canton, Amoy, Fû Châu, Ningpo, and Shanghai should be open to British trade and residence.

In South America naval skirmishes occurred in 1845, during the combined French and British exploring expedition, which had for its chief object the extension of trade in the Rio de la Plata.

In the second Burmese war of 1851 to 1853, the British Navy again rendered signal service on the Irawadi to its sister force. War, however, on a much larger scale was soon to break up the European peace, which had lasted since 1815, and already its signs were abroad; and in this new war Great Britain,

as mistress of the seas, was once more to maintain the balance of power among the Continental nations.

The outbreak arose in consequence of Russia's demand that Turkey should hand over to the Czar the protection of all Christian Turkish subjects. Now, Russia's sympathy with the down-trodden Christians of the Ottoman Empire and Russia's desire to extend its territory at Turkey's expense seemed to other European States to go hand in hand; and when in 1853 the Czar Nicholas spoke of the Turk as a sick man, proposing that if "the sick man died"—meaning that if the Turkish Empire were broken up—Britain and Russia should go halves in the possessions, Britain taking Egypt and Crete, and the Czar the Turkish European provinces, Russia's policy declared itself.

The Great European Powers, Austria, France, Great Britain, and Prussia united to avert war between Russia and her Turkish neighbour, but their friendly intervention, known as the Vienna Note, failed. Turkey declared war in 1853, and was the first to attack. The destruction of the Turkish fleet by Russia at Sinope impelled Britain to take steps against the Czar's dangerously forward policy. Austria and Prussia declined to interfere, but France bound herself to Britain for the struggle, and the Crimean War was begun with naval operations in March, 1854.

The British public was violently exasperated

against Russia, and extreme measures were to be used in reducing its power. The allied English and French fleets, under Admirals Dundas and Lyons, and MM. Hamelin and Bucal, had stern work before them. They were ordered to destroy the Russian Black Sea fleet, and bombard the naval arsenals; to transport a large military force under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud from Varna, where the bulk of the allied army then was, and to land them at Eupatoria, on the west coast of the Crimea in the Black Sea. Finally, they were to capture the Crimea, after destroying the strongly fortified harbour of Sebastopol. To do all this a thoroughly efficient, well-equipped navy was indispensable. Unhappily, the Crimean War found the naval strength of Britain sadly limited. British seamen were as brave, as loyally willing to spend themselves for their country as ever, but our naval resources at the outset of the Crimean War left much to be desired.

In April Odessa was successfully bombarded by the allies. The British and French troops arrived in September, and the battle of the Alma was fought on the 20th, when the British and French troops won the day.

Early in October the allied military forces proceeded to bombard Sebastopol, the combined fleets attempting co-operation by firing on the forts. Our seamen, however, suffered severely from the enemy's shells, while our guns were useless against the stone forts.

In the mean time the other division of the fleet under Sir Charles Napier in the Baltic had found the fortifications of Kronstadt too strong for British guns, and, instead of attacking Kronstadt as intended, a combined military and naval assault, which was successful, was made upon Bomarsund, a strong fortress on one of the Aland Islands. Other strongholds had to be left unmolested, owing to the limited resources of our admirals.

In 1855 a naval detachment of the fleets in the Black Sea distinguished itself by much useful service in the Sea of Azov. Kertch, with its powerful batteries, was destroyed, as was Genitchi, and the Russian fleet in those waters was either burnt or sunk. At Sebastopol, too, which was taken by the allied military forces in September, 1855, a naval brigade rendered conspicuous aid on land. In the Baltic, where the naval resources had been reinforced from England, the bombardment of Sveaborg was in a fair way of accomplishment when, in March, 1856, Russia desired peace, and accepted our conditions. These were that she should not attempt to re-fortify Sebastopol, the fortifications of which were dismantled, or maintain a fleet in the Black Sea. These promises were not kept. Both fleet and fortifications were rebuilt in 1870-71.

Our Navy was quickly at war again. The year had not closed before fresh trouble arose with China, owing to the seizure of a British vessel, by Chinese

officials. Sharp punishment followed, France being our ally in the undertaking. Canton was reduced, and the battle of Fatshan (1857) was won. There was more naval fighting further north on the Peiho River, and the forts of Taku and Tien-tsin were taken before China recognised the necessity of keeping to her engagements with Britain ; but peace was agreed upon in October, 1858, and Great Britain was at liberty to make its own conditions, which were comprehensive and humiliating to China. Treaties on the same lines were concluded with France, the United States, and Russia. The concluding clauses in every treaty, with the exception of that made with the United States, stipulated that the ratification of them should be exchanged *at Peking* within a year. But the thought of the embassies entering their sacred capital was intolerable to the Chinese Emperor and his Ministers, and after the foreign Ministers had gone, strong forts were built to guard Peking and its approaches. On the return of the French, British, and American delegates in 1858 with the ratified treaties, they were met at Shanghai by the Chinese Commissioners, who urged them to exchange the ratification there. The French and British ambassadors refused, and, escorted by the gunboats, proceeded on their journey towards Peking. They were, however, unable to force the defences of the River Peiho, and were repulsed with severe loss.

In little more than a year (1860), the same

Ministers, representing the French and British Governments, returned with a force of nearly 20,000 men. The Taku forts were taken, and Tien-tsin occupied. The Emperor fled, and his brother Prince Kung, a wiser man, surrendered the north-east gate of Peking. The Convention was signed in the capital with additional clauses, including an indemnity for war costs, and also an arrangement effecting an improvement in the immigration of coolies. A strip of Chinese territory facing Hong Kong (Kowloon) was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty, to be further increased later on by an important additional cession made in the year 1898.

Before long, in 1862, Japan had to be taught by our Navy that the rights and liberty of British subjects must be respected, or heavy reprisals would ensue. Kagosima was successfully bombarded, and the British demands for free trade being refused, a coalition with France and the United States forced Japan, after an attack upon Shimonoseki, to come to terms with Britain in 1864.

From then until 1882 the British Navy was occupied in more general work. Police patrol on the high seas was vigilantly carried on, and British supremacy twice asserted itself by great naval displays at two critical moments in the war between Russia and Turkey. The good service performed by our Navy in the Anglo-Egyptian campaign of 1882, when the insurrection of Arabi Pacha threatened to

overthrow European influence in Egypt, is modern history. Under Sir Beauchamp Seymour, afterwards Lord Alcester, an energetic and most successful bombardment of Alexandria was carried out, and its guns and fortresses were entirely demolished.

Further south, in 1881, the tragical story of the Soudan had begun in a widespread revolt against Egyptian tyranny and misrule, its leader being a religious impostor who declared himself to be the Mahdi, or the pre-destined leader who should convert the world to Islâm. In the war which ensued for the rescue of General Gordon, British bluejackets nobly assisted the troops in the numerous combats in which they were uniformly successful. That failure has to be written over the expedition is due to the vacillation of the home Cabinet, but no word of praise can be too strong for the men whose courage and loyalty never faltered amid the ghastly incidents and cruel disappointments of that awful time—a time tersely described by a brilliant journalist * as the “famous-infamous days”—and which reached its climax in the fall of Khartoum (1885) and the murder of the heroic Charles Gordon.

When at last the Khalifa's continued outrages could no longer be overlooked, and the crafty Osman Digna, his colleague, had become increasingly aggressive, Britain decided to act, and in March, 1896, the Sirdar (Major-General Sir Herbert

* The late G. W. Steevens.

Kitchener) was sent out with a large military force to check the triumph of savagery in the form of Mahdiism. British sailors accompanied the expedition, and it is impossible to exaggerate the value of the services that they rendered. On shore, as well as at sea, our sailors were dauntless as ever. The most daring and audacious achievements were brilliantly carried out again and again. At the bombardments of Omdurman and Khartoum the same ceaseless energy and steady courage were shown. Together our brave Army and Navy took part in the final scene—a scene which has no parallel in history, when, under the shadow of the Union Jack, newly flying out triumphant from the Khalifa's palace, high above the spot where Charles Gordon met his death, the men, some of whom had known and loved him, some—like Sir Herbert Kitchener, Colonel Wauchope, and Major Stuart-Wortley—who had risked their own lives to save him while yet living, to all of whom he was an inspiration, and who had nobly avenged him in this last campaign by destroying the fell power of Mahdiism, corruption, and savagery, now stood hushed and silent before the walls of the doomed hero's prison-house and tomb as the "Dead March" in *Saul* heralded the Burial Service, delayed for nearly fourteen years.*

Nor have our gallant sailors failed since then to keep up their ancient reputation for cool courage and

* See G. W. Steevens, "With Kitchener to Khartoum,"

magnificent daring. History has been making rapid strides since noble Gordon's death. Both the struggles in the Soudan and the war in South Africa in 1899-1901 and in China bear eloquent testimony that the same fearless loyalty to duty which characterised the British seamen of the past runs through all ranks of our navy to-day, and the enthusiastic reception accorded to the men of H.M.S. *Powerful* on returning from South Africa in 1900 showed the nation's pride in its brave bluejackets. It is no exaggeration to say that but for the timely appearance of the bluejackets with their 4.7-inch naval guns at Ladysmith in Natal during the war with the Transvaal and Free State Republics, that town would in all probability have been captured by the Boers, and the final triumph of the British arms have been greatly delayed. The arrival of the 4.7 guns under Captain the Hon. Hedworth Lambton, R.N., obliged the Boers to extend their lines 2000 yards further from Ladysmith over the whole circumference—in other words, the Boers were pushed back 2000 yards. The splendid skill and energy of Captain Percy Scott and his crew in rendering the heavy guns of the *Powerful* and the *Terrible* mobile, and transporting them in the very nick of time to Ladysmith, cannot be too highly praised.

In China in 1898 an additional fortress and coaling station was added to the Empire by the cession by

China of the harbour of Wei-hai-wei, on the Gulf of Pechili.

More than a century ago Blackstone wrote: "The Royal Navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength." To-day a far more splendid fabric rests upon our Navy than Blackstone ever dreamt of; and, in addition, the British Flag has become the great central steadying Power, it "guarantees the peace of the world." And this brings us to the question of our standard of naval strength, since the essential demand of Imperial defence is a navy "fully able to take the vigorous initiative against that of every other Power."* In time of war the Navy would have the threefold work of defending the home shores, defending our Colonies, and defending that vast volume of sea-borne commerce which is afloat under the Union Jack.

Personal bravery and skill would be of small use in these days of scientific warfare without adequate naval apparatus and appliances. Britain's sea-power—that is, the numerical strength and efficiency of her naval resources—has largely increased. There are now three-and-a-half times as many sailors and twice as many marines as we had in the last year of William IV. The number of vessels has been nearly doubled. Their tonnage is three times as great, while the enormous advance in the armaments and

* See "The Army Book for the British Empire."

fighting powers of our Navy during the last twenty years has kept pace with the march of progress and development of the resources of invention.

The Naval Defence Act of 1889, introduced by Lord George Hamilton, marks an important governmental departure, and the Naval Works Bill of 1899 shows the importance that British statesmen attach to an efficient naval defence. Between March 31st, 1889, and March 31st, 1899, the total tonnage of the Royal Navy, built and building, increased from 864,000 to 1,800,000, and no less progress is shown in the size of the new vessels. The *Trafalgar*, 345 feet long, was our largest warship in 1889, whereas among the new battleships are some 400 feet long, and some of the new cruisers have a length of over 500 feet. In the same ten years the tonnage of the squadron in the Mediterranean has risen from 96,000 to 205,000 ; that of the Channel Squadron from 37,000 to 155,000 ; the China Squadron has trebled ; while those of the Cape, North America, and the West India Station have almost doubled. To meet this vast naval expansion in size and number, a corresponding expansion of docking facilities is necessary, and new and enlarged docks are being or about to be built, whilst important additions are being carried out in dockyards already existing. The new docks will be at Chatham, Malta, Gibraltar, Bermuda, the Cape, and Hong-Kong. The total strength of the British fleet is given, together with the relative naval



H.M.S. VICTORIOUS.

Photo by West & Sons, Southsea.

strength of the principal maritime Powers, in the margin of the map at the end of this volume. The Navy estimate for 1900 was £27,522,600, or an increase of £928,000 over that of 1899.

How supremely important it is that Britain should retain her sea-supremacy, so hardly won and so bravely kept, thereby assuring safe and free access to all markets, is shown by the enormous commercial development during the century. In 1814 the value of British sea-borne commerce amounted to £87,000,000. In 1899 it had increased to £1,243,536,011.*

The Suez Canal statistics for 1898 are also of interest.

SUEZ CANAL, 1898.

The tonnage of ships passing	...	12,039,858
British tonnage		8,057,705
Number of vessels passing	...	3409
British		2162, or 68 per cent.

Tangible proof of the recent activity in adding to his Majesty's battle squadrons was shown by the unique events of March 5th, 1801, when a quartet of armoured ships were launched at the Royal dock-yards. Two of these, the *Montagu* and the *Albemarle*, are 14,000-ton battleships; the others, the *Drake* and the *Kent*, are first-class cruisers.

* This includes all Canadian trade, sea imports and exports not shown separately, including also bullion and specie.—*Navy League*.

CHAPTER V.

LEADING DATES.

- 8th century. Offa takes Shrewsbury and Hereford.
815. Egbert subdues West Welsh.
828. Egbert invades Wales.
877. Wales divided into three kingdoms.
885. Alfred subdues Welsh princes.
926-933. Athelstan's victories over Welsh.
973-975. Edgar's overlordship of three Welsh princes.
1039. Griffith, King of United Wales; Hereford and Shrewsbury retaken.
1055-1063. Harold's victories in Wales.
1081. William I. invades Wales.
1094. Revolt of Wales.
1095-1097. William II. invades Wales.
1109-1114. Civil war in Wales.
1121. Henry's campaign in Wales.
1135. Revolt of Wales.
1157, 1211, 1246. Invasions into Wales.
1194-1246. Llewelyn ap Iorwerth.
1246-1283. Llewelyn ap Gruffydd.
1267. Acknowledged as Prince of Wales.
1277. Edward reduces Llewelyn to submission.
1283. Conquest of Wales.
1284. Birth of first English Prince of Wales.
1284. Statute of Wales Conciliation Act.
1400. Revolt of Owen Glyndwr.
1536. Wales united to England by Act of Parliament.

“And oft the craggy cliff he loved to climb,
When all in mist the world below was lost :
What dreadful pleasure! there to stand sublime,
Like shipwrecked mariner on desert coast,
And view the enormous waste of vapours tossed
In billows, lengthening to the horizon round,
Now scooped in gulfs, with mountains now embossed !
And hear the voice of mirth and song rebound,
Flocks, herds, and waterfalls along the hoar profound ! ”

BEATTIE.

CHAPTER V.

THE MAKING OF GREAT BRITAIN. UNION WITH WALES.

PART I.

IN the foregoing pages only the briefest notice has marked the political change by which England grew long ago into Great Britain. Indeed, the welding together of the different populations of our island, until the ancient Albion (one only as regarded its geographical form) became the present Great Britain, united under one Sovereign, and in all main features practically homogeneous, is a matter of English history which could only be worked out adequately at considerable length. A slight sketch of the way in which England, Wales, and Scotland, and the neighbouring island of Ireland became united is all that can be attempted here.

The Albion of the ancient Romans was peopled by the Celts, and, as the island was gradually conquered, first by Romans, then by our English forefathers, the Celts of Southern Britain retired to the western limits of the island in Cornwall, and to the mountain

fastnesses of Wales, and Wales became the last refuge of the Briton. Thus the Welsh were from the first a separate nationality from the English or Anglo-Saxon. They preserved their independence stoutly, had their own kings and constitution, and maintained their independence until the twelfth century, in spite of repeated wars. Throughout this time it must be owned they proved most aggressive neighbours. In the eighth century King Offa of Mercia defeated them in battle, and took Shrewsbury and Hereford from them. King Egbert gained a substantial victory over the West Welsh in 815, and again in 828, when he invaded Wales. In the ninth century King Alfred entered into an alliance with them. In 877 the reigning king, Roderic, divided the kingdom into three portions, in order that his three sons might equally succeed him. These divisions were called South Wales, North Wales, and Powys Land, but the last-named division was quickly swallowed up by the two others.

Athelstan and Edgar, in the tenth century, gained some victories over the sturdy little nation, which was plunged at the time in civil war, but their successes did not intimidate the Welsh from continuing their irruptions into the bordering English counties. In 1039 Griffith won back Hereford and Shrewsbury, and became King of all Wales. In 1055 Harold found it expedient to lead an army against the Welsh king. Again, in 1063, he made a second

campaign into Wales and gained a substantial victory, reducing part of the country to submission. Griffith was slain, and for a time the Welsh submitted.

Afterwards, when the Normans conquered England, William I. attempted to assert his feudal authority over the entire country, the principality of Wales included, but its princes refused all allegiance. Whereupon William invaded Wales, and after fierce fighting he managed to subdue the southern portions of it, and settled some of his powerful barons along the Welsh borders to overawe the people and keep them in check. The Welsh, however, resisted all attempts at control, and struggled desperately to regain their independence. Time after time they were up in arms, and showed themselves exceedingly troublesome neighbours to the bordering counties and to the Lord Marchers placed therein to prevent them from rising.

In the reign of William II., the Conqueror's son, the little nation rose in a general revolt, and William in 1095 marched with an army into Wales to enforce its submission. Again the gallant Welsh refused to be conquered, and, protected by their mountain strongholds, they held out manfully, until at last, by sheer valour, Brecknock and Cardigan had been recovered from the Normans, and the castle of Montgomery had been reduced to ashes. William, after two unsuccessful attempts, left them at last, as his father had done before, to be controlled as best they might

by the English Lord Marchers in their strong castles which frowned all along the border-land.

During the reign of Henry I. attempts to conquer Wales were more successful, owing to its internal divisions. In 1109 Cardigan was re-taken by the Earl of Clare, and Henry's campaign in Wales in 1121 was also a success. But only in the previously subdued part of the land was Wales brought really under the power of the English.

A body of Flemings went with the Earl to the Welsh wars, and this led to an interesting incident in the domestic and industrial history of Wales. Flemings flocked into the country, and two successive colonies from the Low Countries were settled in South Pembrokeshire, and to this day that particular corner of Wales is quite distinct from the rest of the country ; the people preserve their identity in their language and customs, some of which are peculiar to the neighbourhood, and are of great antiquity.

The successes gained by the English during the Welsh civil wars of 1109-1114, and in the campaign of 1121, were reversed in a fresh revolt which took place in 1135 ; and after the death of Henry, the Welsh, in a grand burst of patriotism, flung aside the yoke which had been forced on their reluctant shoulders, and fiercely repulsed their would-be conquerors in several desperate battles.

Continued struggles went on between England and the little sister-country. The people of Wales

exhibited a spirit and an independence of character which are retained by them to this day—qualities which have done honour to its people and have helped towards the building up of the Empire.

Henry II., John, and Henry III. followed the fashion set by their predecessors of invading Wales. Always they met with a sturdy resistance, and the fiery Welsh princes over and over again laid aside their mutual rivalries and quarrels in order to band themselves together and make common cause against England. For though the English kings regarded the Welsh as vassals, the Welsh themselves stoutly maintained their independence in the mountainous regions, and between them and the Lord Marchers incessant hostilities were carried on.

It was not until the reign of Edward I. that Wales was actually conquered, and even then they did not remain quiet. The warlike Edward, however, asserted his claim to sovereignty over Wales with more power than either of his predecessors, and eventually he was successful. He first summoned to his court Llewellyn, the second great prince of that name who ruled over the Welsh, to do homage for his kingdom. For two years Llewellyn refused to appear, and at the end of that time Edward led a force against the Welsh prince. Edward's campaign in North Wales was successful; Southern Wales, always the weakest part of the kingdom, and Central Wales declared for the English king, and Llewellyn, who had maintained his

independence in the mountainous regions of North Wales, was compelled to surrender. Edward, however, treated the Welsh prince with a clemency unusual in those times, and not very usual in any period of history. His debts were remitted, and the lady to whom he was engaged—a daughter of Simon de Montfort—who had met with the romantic adventure of being taken captive on her way to meet and be married to him, was brought to the English court to find a happy, instead of tragic end to her love-story. She was wedded there to Llewellyn, and for four years after there was peace between England and Wales. Trouble began once more in 1282, when Llewellyn, at the instigation of his brother David, joined forces with him, and renewed the war against the English king. Indignant at their rebellion, Edward promptly determined to take stronger measures to annihilate the independence of his troublesome Welsh vassals, who repudiated all allegiance to the English Crown. He invaded their country with a powerful force, and before the end of the year Llewellyn was slain on the banks of the Wye, and in 1283 his brother was captured, and this time Edward showed no mercy. David was executed the following year.

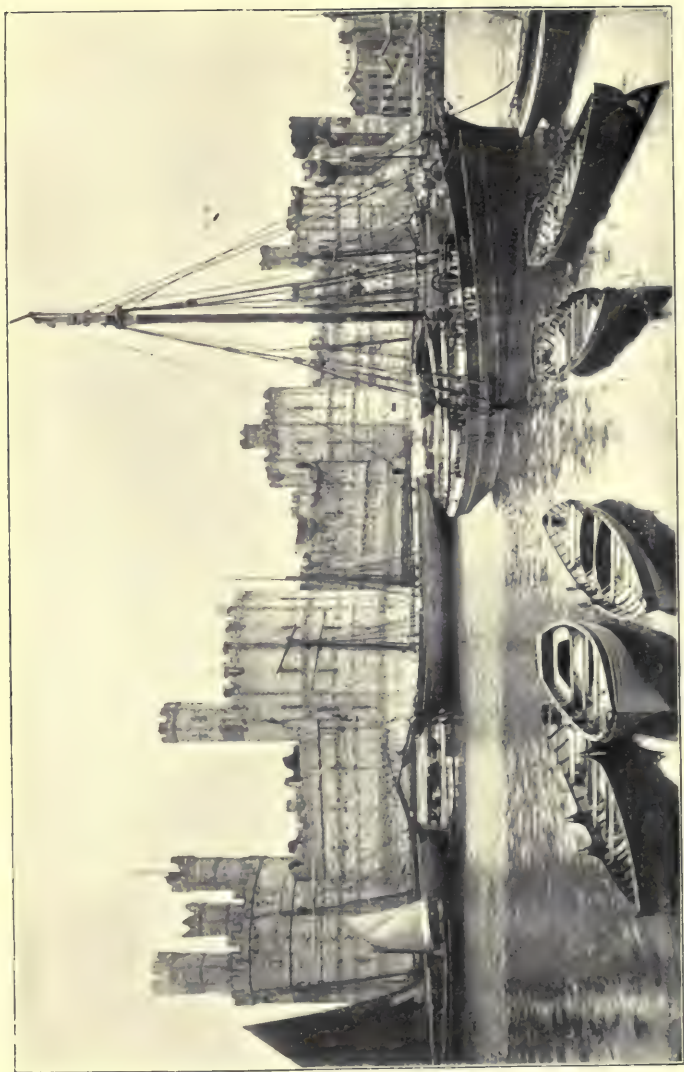
Wales now came directly under the dominion of the English Crown, and Edward built strong castles at Conway and at Carnarvon that he might keep firm rule over his new subjects. But he also tried

in 1284 to conciliate them by enacting suitable laws for them under the name of the Statute of Wales, and by "establishing a separate body of local officials to govern them, as well as by confirming them in the possession of their lands and goods." *

In the same year a son was born to Edward in Carnarvon Castle, and every one is familiar with the picturesque story of the royal father holding up his little son for the homage of the Welsh chieftains, and saying to them in their own language, "This is your man"—that is, "your native king." Edward of Carnarvon, the royal infant presented to the Welsh as their liege lord, "the prince born in Wales, who could speak no English," was the first English Prince of Wales, a title borne for more than six hundred years by the eldest son of most of the monarchs reigning over Britain, including Edward the Black Prince down to his Majesty King Edward VII., and, as we hope, presently to be borne by H.R.H. the Duke of Cornwall and York. Thus Carnarvon Castle witnessed the welding of the two peoples, the Saxon and the Briton, a union productive of lasting good.

One further blow was struck for independence, however. In 1400 Owain Glyndwr, or Owen Glendower, a descendant of the old Welsh princes, encouraged by the troubled state of England, raised the standard of Wales, and a national rising was

* See "A Student's History of England," by S. R. Gardiner.



CARNARVON CASTLE.

Photo by Frith & Co.

the prompt response. All north Wales and part of the south flocked to his side, whilst a force of French auxiliaries was despatched by Charles, King of France, to aid the Welsh cause. It was four years before the English Prince of Wales wrested the south from the Welsh once more, and then gradually, after a succession of defeats, Glyndwr was driven to take refuge among his native mountains in the north. And here, almost single-handed, for his followers one by one gave up the struggle, the Welsh patriot continued to fight for national independence until his death in 1415. A little over a century later, in 1536, Wales was incorporated into England by Act of Parliament. Glyndwr's spirited stand represented Wales' last attempt to shake off her allegiance to England, and to-day brave and loyal little Wales is a bright jewel in the Crown of the British Empire.

CHAPTER VI.

LEADING DATES.

- 843. Kenneth MacAlpine. Scots king ascends Pictish throne.
- 924. Alliance between Edward the Elder and the Scots.
- 937. Battle of Brunanburh.
- 1057. Malcolm II.
- 1124-1153. King David.
- 1138. Battle of the Standard. English defeat Scots.
- 1165-1214. William the Lion.
- 1174. Alnwick. William taken prisoner by English.
- 1174. Treaty of Falaise. William becomes vassal of Henry II. of England.
- 1189. Richard I. abandons Treaty of Falaise.
- 1285. Death of Alexander III.
- 1290. Death of the Maid of Norway.
- 1291-1292. Award of Norham in favour of Balliol.
- 1291. Edward I. claims suzerainty.
- 1293. English Court of Appeal.
- 1296. Edward I. conquers Scotland. Battle of Dunbar—Balliol taken prisoner.
- 1297-1304. William Wallace.
- 1297. Stirling—Victory of Wallace.
- 1298. Falkirk—Defeat of Wallace.
- 1304. Scotland reconquered.
- 1305. Wallace executed.
- 1306. The claims of Robert Bruce.
- 1306. Methven. Scottish defeat.
- 1314. Bannockburn. Edward II. of England defeated by Scots under Bruce.
- 1328. Treaty of Northampton. England recognises independence of Scotland.

- 1329. Death of Bruce.
- 1333. Halidon Hill. Edward III. defeats Scots.
- 1405. Prince James taken captive.
- 1424. His release and return to his kingdom.
- 1513. Flodden. Scottish defeat.
- 1532-1534. War with Scotland.
- 1542. Solway Moss. Scottish defeat.
- 1542-1587. Mary Stuart.
- 1587. Execution of Queen Mary.
- 1603. James King of Great Britain. England, Wales, and Scotland, united by the Crown.
- 1604. Hampton Court Conference.
- 1637. Riot at Edinburgh.
- 1638. Abolition of Episcopacy in Scotland. National Covenant.
- 1639. Treaty of Berwick. Ecclesiastical and Civil affairs to be settled in Edinburgh.
- 1640. The English Short Parliament—the Long Parliament.
- 1643. The Solemn League and Covenant between the Scottish and the English Commonwealth.
- 1646. Charles I. surrenders to the Scots.
- 1650. Charles II. lands in Scotland. Promises to support Presbyterianism, and is acknowledged king.
- 1650. Dunbar. Cromwell defeats Scots.
- 1651. Worcester. Cromwell defeats Charles II. and Scottish army.
- 1654-1660. Union with England.
- 1660. Parliamentary union dissolved.
- 1707. Legislative union with England.
- 1715. First Jacobite Rebellion.
- 1745. Second Jacobite Rebellion.

“Triumphant be the thistle still unfurled,
Dear symbol wild ! on Freedom’s hills it grows,
Where Fingal stemmed the tyrants of the world,
And Roman eagles found unconquered foes.

.

“Is there a son of generous England here,
Or fervid Erin ?—he with us shall join,
To pray that in eternal union dear,
The rose, the shamrock, and the thistle twine !

.

“Types of a race who shall the invader scorn,
As rocks resist the billows round their shore.
Types of a race who shall to time unborn,
Their country leave unconquered as of yore !”

CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER VI.

THE MAKING OF GREAT BRITAIN. UNION WITH SCOTLAND.

PART II.

SCOTLAND, the northern part of Great Britain, is separated from England by the Solway Firth and the Borders—a frontier line having the magnificent Cheviot Range in the middle, and running between Cumberland and Northumberland on the English side, and Dumfries, Roxburgh, and Berwick on the Scottish side. The Atlantic Ocean washes its northern and western, and the North Sea its eastern shores.

The dynastic junction of Scotland with England did not take place until 1603, and its legislative union not until 1707 ; but, in spite of some troubles and warfare between the two countries, notably in the reign of Edward I., the earlier relations existing between the English and the Scottish people were never so hostile and fiercely combative as the quarrels between the English and the Welsh, or those between the English and the Irish.

The first union of Scotland with England was

effected at the request of the Scots themselves. Its conditions were vague, and probably amounted to nothing more than an alliance by which each country bound itself to serve the other in war. The desire of the Scots for this treaty was very natural, for their kingdom was perpetually invaded and harassed by the strong Jarls of Orkney and Caithness, and they needed powerful allies against this hardy foe. As they were the gainers by the league, it was natural that they should take the humbler position in the alliance, and we find them acknowledging the English king, Eadward the Elder, as "father and lord."

At this time the northern portions of Scotland were inhabited by the descendants of the old Picts and Scots, the latter of whom were originally Irish adventurers who had come over in coracles (or wicker boats covered with skins), and had invaded, conquered, and settled in parts of the country about the same time that the Anglo-Saxons were entering England. The little kingdom in the North where the Scots settled, survived century after century, though generally in a state of vassalage to the Picts, until about the middle of the ninth century, by a revolution the precise nature of which is shrouded in the mists of ages, they acquired predominance, and in 843 a Scots king, Kenneth MacAlpine, ascended the Pictish throne. The seat of government was then transferred from Dunstaffnage to Forteviot, the Pictish capital. The name of Pictland gradually died out, and Scotland

Scotland became the designation of the whole country, and the Picts and Scots were welded into one people. "From the time of Kenneth MacAlpine," writes Sir Walter Scott, "to that of Macbeth—that is, from 843 to 1040, a space of about two centuries—we have a line of fifteen kings of Scots," who "sustained successfully the sceptre of Kenneth, and by repeated battles, both with the English and the Danes, not only repelled the attacks of their neighbours, but consolidated the strength of their kingdom, gradually modelling an association of barbarous, and in part wandering tribes, into the consistence of a regular State. It is true that through the mist of years these sceptred shades are seen but indistinctly and dimly, yet as we catch a glimpse we see them occupied always in battle, and often in conquest." *

Constantine, the Scottish king, who had formed an alliance with Eadward the Elder against his Danish foes, presently changed his policy, and allied himself with the Norse invaders against the English. In 937 Constantine sailed with his Picts and Scots, and, accompanied by the Danish allies, disembarked at the mouth of the Humber, and a great battle was fought at Brunanburh, in which Athelstan defeated the invaders. In the next Scottish reign, that of Malcolm I., the friendly relations with England were renewed, and the English king, Edmund, bestowed on the Scottish prince a considerable portion of the

* *Quarterly Review*, 1829.

Cumbrian kingdom. This grant became subsequently the basis of England's claim of over-lordship over Scotland. King Eadgar, in the succeeding reign added a further grant of territory to the kingdom of Scotland by handing over the strip of country called Strathclyde, and later the whole of the Lowlands was given up to the Scots on conditions of aid in war, and the acknowledgment of the English king as over-lord.

In the reign of Malcolm II. additional English lands were granted to Scotland, and its kingdom was extended to the Tweed. In 1057 commenced the reign of Malcolm Canmore, who married the English Princess Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling. When the English lands were granted to Scotland by peaceable settlement large numbers of the English became Scottish subjects, and in the time of Malcolm Canmore the English language, English customs, and an English population spread into the northern and western districts of Scotland. A further influx into Scotland of large numbers of English colonists took place at the time when the Normans were taking possession of the whole of the southern portion of our island. Malcolm and his gentle English queen welcomed their new subjects together with their English customs, and the fusion of the two peoples was a natural development. The English, however, brought with them their own language, the Anglo-Saxon, whereas the native tongue of Scotland, which

to this day is spoken in the Highlands, was Gaelic, a variety of the Celtic dialect.

Under King David (1124-1153), Scotland flourished in an amazing degree, materially and morally, and rapid strides were made in civilisation. But the Scottish king was a warrior also, and he chivalrously undertook the cause of his niece, the Empress Matilda, in England, in her struggle with Stephen. In order to understand the political situation at this time, it must be remembered that the Scottish kings and princes frequently held lordship in England for which they did homage, a system of holding which brought the two countries into close relationship, and indirectly operated to bring Scotland more completely under the control of England than had probably been foreseen by the royal bestower of these fiefs. David himself held the English earldom of Huntingdon in right of his own wife. After the battle of the Standard in 1138, in which David was defeated, Stephen agreed to the stipulation that David's son, Prince Henry, should hold Northumberland (Bam-borough and Newcastle excepted) as a fief of the English Crown, David himself retaining Cumberland without paying homage for it to England.

Malcolm IV. (1153-65) succeeded David, and after him his brother, William the Lion, became King of Scotland. During the reign of William the Lion the powerful English barons of the north and central districts in England revolted against the King,

Henry II., and the Scottish king joined them in their rebellion. At the great battle of Alnwick, where the King's army under Ranulf de Glanville dispersed the rebellious barons' forces, William the Lion was taken prisoner and carried off to Normandy. Before Henry would consent to restore him to liberty, William was obliged to sign the Treaty of Falaise (1174), by which he acknowledged himself the vassal of the English monarch for his kingdom. The prelates and lords of Scotland paid homage to Henry as their lord, and a right of appeal to the English court as supreme was allowed in all cases tried in Scotland; this was a very pronounced mark of dominion.

Henry's successor, King Richard I. of England, eager for money to defray the expenses of his crusades, abandoned the Treaty of Falaise, and allowed Scotland to buy back her liberty. William's successors, however, held lands in England, and for these they paid homage to the English Sovereigns, though they paid no homage for their crown. "For more than a century there was no national quarrel, no national war between the two kingdoms—a blessed period," writes Lord Hailes. And in the intervening years Scotland made steady advancement.

The English king, Edward I., was anxious to revive the conditions of the agreement made between Henry II. and William the Lion, but Alexander III. of Scotland, one of Scotland's greatest kings, would

not yield, and Edward, who had set his heart on the triple union of Scotland and Wales (which was now conquered) with England, made peaceable overtures to bring about an alliance with the northern kingdom. A marriage was arranged between his own son and Margaret the Maid of Norway, granddaughter of Alexander III. and heiress to the Scottish Crown, Alexander having been killed by a fall from his horse in 1285. By this arrangement Edward hoped the two countries would be united under one head, though the marriage treaty stipulated that Scotland should remain a free and independent country, and that there should be no appeal in Scottish causes to the English courts. The "Maid of Norway," as Alexander's grandchild, the young daughter of Eric, King of Norway, was called, died on her way to Scotland, and Edward's attempt to establish a friendly union between the two countries was doomed to disappointment.

On the death of the little Maid of Norway there appeared a large number of claimants for the vacant Scottish throne. The lineal descendants of William the Lion being extinct, those of his three nieces had a better claim than any of the other ten aspirants. John Balliol, Robert Bruce, and John Hastings each claimed descent from one of these three nieces. The claimants themselves and the Council of Regency, anxious to avoid a desolating civil war, agreed to allow Edward I. of England to decide between them

in a Parliament to be held at Norham. Fortune at last seemed to have favoured Edward's long-desired plan of uniting the two countries, and to have given Scotland into his hands. He made no attempt to revive the claims of the old Treaty of Falaise abandoned by Richard I., but built up sovereignty for England on a fresh basis. He demanded as the price of his arbitration that the Scottish king should pay him homage as paramount lord of Scotland. The Scottish people had not anticipated this development of the situation, but they were not prepared to offer any effectual resistance, and when Edward brought his army to the front they gave in, acknowledged him as suzerain, yielded up their castles, and took the oaths of fealty. After going through all the points of the disputed succession and hearing the claims of the three applicants, Edward decided in favour of Balliol, who paid him homage, acknowledging that he and his heirs were vassals to the king of England.

"Lightly come, lightly go" is an old proverb which sometimes applies as well to political affairs as to matters of everyday life. Edward had taken possession of Scotland too suddenly and easily for all to go smoothly afterwards, and, unhappily for the peace and tranquillity of the new relationship, Edward went too far in his demands upon Scotland. The vassal Scottish king, Balliol, was unwilling to yield obedience when he found Edward enforcing the



EDINBURGH.

Photo by Photochrom Co., Ltd.

arbitrary condition of England furnishing an ultimate Court of Appeal. Such an obligation roused the national temper to resistance, and when Edward summoned the Scottish nobles to follow him in arms against France they refused to obey. Still more annoying, in 1295 the Scots entered into a friendly league with France, our enemy at that time, and this alliance, which lasted for three centuries, frequently proved a dangerous and troublesome political combination against England.

The immediate cause of the outbreak that followed in Scotland was a summons received by Balliol from Edward, commanding him to attend his Parliament at Newcastle. Instead of obeying, Balliol rose in defiance against the English monarch, and when Edward, crossed the border to enforce his claim of sovereignty over Scotland, Balliol flung his vassalage to the winds and prepared to fight for his crown. Edward marched on Berwick, captured it, and took a terrible revenge for a defeat which had been sustained by a handful of English soldiers at the hands of the Scots. The English king continued his triumphant march, and took possession of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Perth, and after the decisive victory of Dunbar in 1296, Balliol was forced to surrender himself as prisoner to Edward, and finally disappeared from his kingdom. Edward at once took absolute possession of Scotland, and abandoned all idea of setting up another feudal king. Balliol was declared to have forfeited his claim

to the crown by treason, and Edward, as his liege sovereign, seized his kingdom, and proclaimed himself King of Scotland, and under the pressure brought to bear upon them, the Scottish nobles did homage to him.

It was on this occasion that the famous stone of Scotland's destiny, upon which the ancient monarchs of Scotland were crowned at Scone, was carried by Edward I. to England, where it has ever since formed the support of the Coronation Chair of our Sovereigns in Westminster Abbey.

Unhappily, the officers left by Edward in Scotland treated it as a conquered and alien territory, and their injustice and harshness roused the Scots to a national revolt. The desperate struggle to regain the independence of their country began in 1297, when William Wallace, a brave gentleman of the Lowlands, raised the standard of Scotland and proclaimed its independence. Wallace's bold and skilful leadership encouraged the drooping spirits of his countrymen, and kindled the flames of enthusiastic patriotism which burned on long after his defeat at Falkirk in 1298. For a time Wallace was successful, and he gained a brilliant victory at Stirling in 1297, but in the next year Edward defeated him at Falkirk, and Wallace was forced to flee the country. The resistance struggled on until, in 1304, Edward's victorious campaigns completed the second conquest of Scotland. Wallace returned to his native

land in 1305. Soon after he was betrayed to the English, and was executed at Tyburn as a traitor and rebel. The pride of the armoury at Dumbarton Castle is the great two-handed sword which to a man of average strength to-day seems a burden even to lift, but which the Scottish patriot wielded in deadly fight.

“ The sword that was fit for archangel to wield,
Was light in his terrible hand.”

Wallace died for Scotland, and it may be said for his countrymen, as his execution was the only one which followed the revolt. In all that he did Edward went no further than his feudal rights justified. As Dr. Gardiner so ably points out, “ Edward’s dealings, mistaken as they were, were not those of a self-willed tyrant. If it be once admitted that he was really the lord paramount of Scotland, everything that he did may be justified upon feudal principles. First, Balliol forfeited his vassal crown by breaking his obligation as a vassal. Secondly, Edward, through the default of his vassal, took possession of the fief which Balliol had forfeited, and thus became the immediate lord of Balliol’s vassals. Thirdly, those vassals rebelled—so, at least, Edward would have said—against their new lord. Fourthly, they thereby forfeited their estates to him, and he was therefore, according to his own view, in the right in restoring their estates to them—if he restored them at all—under new conditions. Satisfactory as this argument must

have seemed to Edward, it was weak in two places. The Scots might attack it at its basis by retorting that Edward had never been lord paramount of Scotland at all ; or they might assert that it did not matter whether he was so or not, because the Scottish right to national independence was superior to all feudal claims. It is this latter argument which has the most weight at the present day, and it seems to us strange that Edward, who had done so much to encourage the national growth of England, should have entirely ignored the national growth of Scotland. All that can be said to palliate Edward's mistake is that it was, at first, difficult to perceive that there was a Scottish nationality at all. Changes in the political aspect of affairs grow up unobserved, and it was not till after his death that all classes in Scotland were completely welded together in resistance to an English king. At all events, if he treated the claim of the Scots to national independence with contempt, he at least strove, according to his own notion, to benefit Scots and English alike. He hoped that one nation, justly ruled under one government, would grow up in the place of two divided peoples.

"It was better even for England that Edward's hopes should fail. Scotland would have been of little worth to its more powerful neighbours if it had been cowed into subjection ; whereas when, after struggling and suffering for her independence, she offered herself freely as the ally and companion of

England, to share in common duties and common efforts, the gift was priceless." *

Before leaving the country, Edward entrusted the government to a Council of Scottish nobles, and decreed that Scotland should send to the English Parliament ten representative members, and the amended laws of King David were made the basis of a new system of legislature. The new legislature was barely formulated when a fresh rising burst out in Scotland, headed this time by Robert Bruce, the grandson of the Bruce who had contested the Scottish Crown with Balliol after the death of the Maid of Norway. Bruce, like Balliol, was of Norman descent, and his family were Edward's followers. Edward, however, had shown plainly that there would be no restoration of a vassal king, and Robert Bruce, who aspired to the throne of Scotland, put himself at the head of the Scottish people, determined to make a desperate stand for the sovereignty of the nation. A rival claimant stood in the way—the Red Comyn. In 1306, Bruce and the Red Comyn met by arrangement in the church of the Grey Friars in Dumfries. Bruce was in the midst of pleading his title to the Scottish throne, when Comyn furiously denounced him as a traitor to the English King of Scotland. Almost before the words were out Bruce had retorted by a thrust of his dagger. Flying from the church, Bruce made for Scone, leaving Kirkpatrick to finish

* See "History of England," by S. R. Gardiner.

the murder of Comyn. At Scone, Robert Bruce was crowned King of Scotland. Edward, who regarded Bruce as a traitor and murderer, was roused to fury, and followed in hot pursuit until he came up with him, and completely routed the Scottish army at Methven. Bruce himself was one of the very few who escaped from that dreadful field. Edward took a bitter vengeance, and the captive followers of Bruce were treated with the utmost rigour. Their lands were given to the English, and they themselves were crowded into the foulest English dungeons, there to die. Their leader, Bruce, after wandering for months solitary and desolate and in danger of his life, contrived to reach Carrick, and once more the Scots flocked to the standard of the Bruce. Again King Edward started to reduce Scotland to submission, but, broken by age and grief, he died before the Border was reached.

Under Edward II. Bruce achieved great and rapid successes. In the year 1314 Stirling was the only English garrison left to the English king in Scotland, and even this had been compelled to promise to surrender to Bruce if not relieved by the 24th of June. At this crisis the pleasure-loving Edward II. was stirred to action. On the 24th of June he appeared with an army at Bannockburn, a little distance from Stirling. But at Bannockburn the gallant Scots won their hard-fought struggle for independence, and the English turned and fled. Stirling surrendered, and

Scotland was lost to England. After this, desolating English raids ravaged the south of Scotland, and the Scots retaliated by laying waste the north of England ; and for years a harassing struggle devastated the Border-lands and swept the country north and south. By the Treaty of Northampton, however, signed in 1328, England was obliged to recognise the freedom of Scotland and to acknowledge Robert Bruce as its King. In the following year King Robert died, and in the years that followed Scotland passed through the most wretched experiences of her history.

After King Robert's death, the English nobles, who had been promised the restoration of their Scottish lands by the Treaty of Northampton, resented the ignoring of this condition by the Scottish King, and, exasperated, they undertook to place Edward Balliol, son of John Balliol, who forfeited the crown in 1296, on the throne. By their aid Edward Balliol obtained the Scottish throne. Within a year, however, Balliol reappeared a fugitive in England, to plead for a renewal of the English help to enable him to regain his turbulent kingdom. In this way Edward III. first became involved in Scottish wars. Berwick was in the hands of the Scots, and Edward marched to lay siege to it in 1333. The Scots advanced, and Edward and his famous archers won the battle of Halidon Hill, which wiped out the defeat of Bannockburn, and Berwick was re-taken. Once more a vassal king was on the Scottish throne, and, having

given Edward Balliol his crown, Edward III. demanded all Scotland on this side of the Forth as the price of his assistance. In 1334 Balliol was again driven from the throne by the supporters of David Bruce, and Edward repeated his invasion of Scotland. This occurred again and again, Balliol being too feeble to keep his crown without the help of the English king, and meanwhile unhappy Scotland was plunged into the untold miseries of foreign and civil war.

At last David Bruce crossed to France, and remained there protected by King Philip, who coveted Edward's part of Aquitaine. The so-called Hundred Years' War with France began in 1337, and the Scots, directly England was engaged with France, resumed hostilities ; and so the struggle went on until, in 1405, the young Scottish prince, afterwards James I., was captured by an English vessel when on his way to the French court, where he was to be educated, and was carried to England, where Henry IV. detained him as a hostage for the good behaviour of Scotland. Even after King Robert, his father, died, and the Stuart prince was King, he was not suffered to return and take possession of his kingdom—not until the year 1424, when Bedford, anxious to break off Scotland's alliance with the French, liberated James on condition that his influence should be used to break the hated connection maintained by his Scottish subjects with France.

The vigorous and able rule of King James I., when at last he was released and free to enter his kingdom, gradually restored a measure of tranquillity to Scotland; and if his long imprisonment formed a romantic prelude to his reign, it had strengthened every kingly quality in the Scottish monarch, and his reign was a blessing to his people. Unhappily, this admirable sovereign was assassinated, and the wretched internal disorder that had prevailed before his time returned in full force. Whenever there was difficulty between France and England, Scotland seldom failed to give us trouble. When Henry VIII. of England crossed over to France to win the battle of the Spurs, James IV. of Scotland promptly invaded Northumberland, and lost his life at the battle of Flodden in 1513, when the English under the Earl of Surrey routed the Scots. Open war was waged between the two kingdoms from 1532-1534, and James V. proved anything but an agreeable and peaceable neighbour. In 1542 war again broke out, and the Duke of Norfolk laid waste the Scottish side of the Border, whereupon James retaliated by throwing a large army into Cumberland. This attempt ended disastrously for Scotland in the flight and panic of Solway Moss. The Scottish army, which had been harassed by the English horsemen, when night came on was unexpectedly attacked by a small company of the English, and, having no confidence in its leader, fled in wildest confusion, and was annihilated on Solway Moss. The Scottish king

sank under the blow, and only a few days before his death his little daughter, the ill-fated Mary Queen of Scots, was born. The defeats of Flodden Field and Solway Moss had embittered the Scots against the English victors, and when Henry VIII. made friendly overtures and proposed a marriage between Edward, Prince of Wales, and the infant Queen of Scots, the Scots rejected his proposal, and married her instead to the French Dauphin, afterwards Francis II. of France.

Perhaps the most striking figure which appears in the history of Scotland is that of Mary Stuart, the brilliant and fascinating woman whose character still remains a topic of lively dispute, and whose charm lives on in the minds of the many to whom beauty in misfortune makes an unfailing appeal. Owing to Mary's picturesque personality her history is very generally known, together with the bitter dislike and jealousy entertained against her by Elizabeth, who distrusted her rival queen-cousin of Scotland as a dangerously near aspirant to the throne of England. Mary, in right of being the granddaughter of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., was the next in legal succession to the English throne.

Left a widow at eighteen, and supported by the French in her pretensions to the English Crown, Mary returned to Scotland to raise the Catholic portion of the country in her behalf. She married her cousin, Lord Darnley, and had a son, on whose

head the Crowns of England and Scotland were to be united. The murder of Darnley, as it was supposed with his wife's connivance, ruined Mary's cause with her own people. She was captured, and compelled to abdicate in favour of her infant son, who was crowned James VI. of Scotland. Mary's escape from prison, defeat and re-capture, her long captivity in England, whither she had been compelled to fly for refuge, and her execution by order of Elizabeth, in 1587, need only be touched on here.

Added to other evils which distracted Scotland at this time was a great ecclesiastical struggle, and the history of Scotland for some time consists mainly in the records of the triumph of Protestantism over the Roman Catholic communion. James VI. was brought up in the Reformed Faith. But the religious struggle did not end with the overthrow of Roman Catholicism. Episcopacy supported by the Crown, and Presbyterianism supported by the common orders, the Scottish nobles upholding either according to their convictions, waged a strife as fierce as it was bitter.

On the death of Elizabeth, James VI. of Scotland succeeded to the throne of England as James I., he being, as has been shown, the direct descendant through his mother, Mary Queen of Scots, of Henry VII. In 1603 James was proclaimed "King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland," and at last, the three sister-kingdoms—England, Wales, and Scotland—were united under one head.

The burning question of religious toleration came to the front immediately after James's accession, and in 1604 the Hampton Court Conference was held. The Puritan clergy, who had become more moderate in their ideas, petitioned to be excused the wearing of the surplice and the use of certain ceremonials without forfeiting their ministry in the National Church. One of the petitioners used the word "Presbytery." At the obnoxious word, James, who had up to this time listened to him quietly, now sharply interrupted the speaker. "A Scottish Presbytery," he burst out, overflowing with wrath, "agreeth as well with a monarchy as God with the devil. Then Jack, and Tom, and Will, and Dick shall meet, and at their pleasure censure me and my council. . . . Until you find that I grow lazy, let that alone ;" and he ordered the petitioners to conform, or to give up their ministry.*

Before the end of this year many of the clergy who refused to conform were deprived of their benefices, and the great Puritan Revolution grew by persecution. When the English Parliament met that same year (1604), its members objected to the King's proposal for a union with Scotland, feeling sore and jealous at the presence of the numbers of Scottish nobles and gentlemen who thronged the court and received grants of English land and money. In 1606-7 James tried to induce the English Legislature to establish free trade

* Gardiner.

with Scotland, but in vain. Nor would the Commons consent to naturalise the King's Scottish subjects who had come with him to England. James's appeal to the judges on this last point obtained a decision that only those of his Scottish subjects born after his accession to the English Crown could be legally naturalised and qualified to hold English lands.

The ecclesiastical contest between bishops and clergy in Scotland gained in national and political importance, and the attempt made by Charles I. to introduce a new Book of Common Prayer led to a serious riot at Edinburgh in 1637. The whole of Scotland rose in tumult, and four committees, known as the Tables, practically assumed the government of Scotland. "In February, 1638, all good Scots were signing a National Covenant. Nothing was said in it about Episcopacy, but those who signed it bound themselves to labour by all means lawful to recover the purity and liberty of the gospel, as it was established and professed before the recent innovation." *

In 1638, Charles, anxious to restore tranquillity amongst his Scottish people, withdrew his new Book of Common Prayer, and agreed to curtail the powers of Episcopacy. A General Scottish Assembly met at Glasgow in November of that year to consider the difficulty. It was composed of 144 ministers and 96 laymen, most of these last being noblemen. The temper of the Assembly was quickly shown. Its

* See "History of England," by S. R. Gardiner.

clerical members claimed a Divine right to arrange all ecclesiastical affairs independently of the Crown, and proceeded to judge the bishops. At this juncture the Marquis of Hamilton, who as Commissioner represented the Sovereign, ordered the dissolution of the Assembly. The Assembly declined to disperse, asserting their superiority to all secular jurisdiction, and, proceeding with their vigorous measures, the bishops were deposed, and the Presbytery was declared to be restored.

The Scottish General Assembly having defied his authority, Charles had no option but to assert his sovereignty by arms. The bloodless war that followed with Scotland is known as the First Bishops' War. The King led an army to Berwick, but no fighting took place, for he found the Scots were better prepared both with men and money than he was, and the Treaty of Berwick was signed in June, 1639, Charles having promised that all ecclesiastical matters, as well as all civil affairs, should be settled in an Assembly and Parliament at Edinburgh. The appointed meeting of the Scottish Parliament and Assembly took place, and it was decided by the members to abolish Episcopacy. This decision was intolerable to Charles, and, after commanding the Scottish Parliament to adjourn, he made ready for another war.

In the previous attempt to coerce Scotland into obedience Charles had acted alone; this time he summoned an English Parliament, hoping that it

would grant the necessary supplies for his intended attack upon Scotland. The English Parliament, however, when it met, had so many national grievances to have righted, that it seized the occasion of Charles's difficulty to compel him to abandon certain arbitrary Acts—notably the obnoxious ship-money tax—before voting money for the unpopular Scottish war. Eventually, when Parliament prepared to press the King to relinquish the war, Charles in disgust anticipated its refusal by declaring Parliament dissolved on May 5th, and the Short Parliament, as it is known in history, came to an end after little more than three weeks' existence. Denied the aid of Parliament, Charles raised his army, for the most part by the means of press-gangs, and marched north. The Scots crossed the Tweed and routed a part of the royal army at Newburn on the Tyne, and the humiliated King was unable to prolong the war. The new Parliament, which Charles was forced to summon—the Long Parliament, as it figures in history—disbanded the royal forces in Yorkshire, and the Scots retired to their own side of the Border.

In the terrible civil wars between Charles and his Parliament Scotland bore a part. In 1643 Sir Harry Vane, the Parliamentary general, entered into the "Solemn League and Covenant" with the Scottish Puritan party. The agreement bound England to "the reformation of religion in the Church of England,

according to the example of the best reformed Churches"—meaning the Presbyterian—and to this Sir Harry Vane added the words, "according to the Word of God," which left a wide interpretation possible. The English Parliament having sworn to the Covenant, a Scottish army was sent to aid the Parliament in its next campaign against King Charles. In May, 1646, Charles, compelled to surrender either to the Parliament or to the Scottish army, chose the Scots. He rode into their camp, imagining that no harsh or difficult conditions would be exacted, and that he would shortly regain his throne with their assistance. But the royal captive miscalculated the position and the character of his gaolers. When the Scots found that there was no hope of Charles conforming to the Covenant and throwing himself on the side of the Presbyterian body, they withdrew their offer to fight for him, and at last, on January 30th, 1647, they accepted the money that Parliament owed for their services, and returned to Scotland, leaving Charles in the hands of the Parliamentary Commissioners.

In the summer of 1650 Charles II. landed in Scotland, and having promised that he would support Presbyterianism, the Scots joyfully acknowledged him as their King. Cromwell, alarmed, led the English army into Scotland to drive Charles from his throne. The gallant David Leslie baffled his first attempt to take Edinburgh, and Cromwell fell back on

Dunbar. Here, however, on September 3rd, he defeated the Scots, and Edinburgh was forced to surrender. More fighting followed, and on the first anniversary of Dunbar, 1651, Cromwell annihilated the Scottish army, at the battle of Worcester, and Charles fled to France. Not long after, an ordinance was passed by Cromwell's Government declaring the complete union of Scotland with England, and Scotland was ordered to return members to the English Parliament. At the Restoration the union of Parliaments was at once dissolved, and Scotland resumed her independent legislature, though the two States were united by the Crown.

The final union between the two countries was accomplished in Queen Anne's reign. For some time objections were brought forward by Scotland to this measure, but these were gradually overcome, and in 1707 the new Act of Union was passed. By the provisions of the Act the Scottish Church and the Scottish law remained as they were; all rights of trade between England and Scotland were thrown open, and the same coinage was adopted by both. The Scottish Parliament ceased to exist, and was merged in that of the United Kingdom, forty-five Scottish members being returned to represent their country in the British House of Commons, and sixteen peers in the House of Lords to be elected for each Parliament.

Since that date there have been two attempts on

the part of a portion of the Scots—the Highlanders—to restore, not national independence, but the Jacobite line, who claimed to be the rightful sovereigns of England. These attempts took place in 1715 and in 1745 ; both were easily repressed, and at no time enlisted the sympathies of the Scots as a people.

Of the result of this fusion of the two nations, Green writes—

“The two nations whom the Union brought together have ever since remained one. England gained in the removal of a constant danger of treason and war. To Scotland the Union opened up new avenues of wealth which the energy of its people turned to wonderful account. The farms of Lothian have become models of agricultural skill. A fishing town on the Clyde has grown into the rich and populous Glasgow. Peace and culture have changed the wild clansmen of the Highlands into herdsmen and farmers. Nor was the change followed by any loss of national spirit. The world has hardly seen a mightier and more rapid development of national energy than that of Scotland after the Union. All that passed away was the jealousy which had parted, since the days of Edward I., two peoples whom a common speech proclaimed to be one.” *

The Union between Scotland and England has been real and stable, simply because it was the legislative acknowledgment and enforcement of a “national

* Green.



THE FORTH BRIDGE.

Photo by Photochrom Co., Ltd.,

fact." Since the Union, Scotland and her brave, persevering, and thrifty sons have played a prominent part in the public and domestic affairs of the United Kingdom, markedly in its intellectual life, in its colonial enterprise and expansion, and not least in its wars. The magnificent courage of the Scottish regiments is part and parcel of the story of the Empire. There hang in Edinburgh Cathedral, in peace and quiet, fifteen old Scottish regimental banners—some fresh, others faded and torn to fragments, after noble service in the long Peninsular Wars, at "king-making Waterloo," in the Crimea, in the Indian Mutiny, in China and in Kaffir-land—fit emblems of a people's valour and of Scotland's glory.

CHAPTER VII.

LEADING DATES.

- 432. Arrival of St. Patrick.
- 465. Death of St. Patrick.
- 1155. Pope Adrian IV. authorises Henry II. to invade Ireland.
- 1168. Dermid MacMurrough seeks Henry's aid.
- 1169-1170. Invasion of Ireland by Strongbow.
- 1171. Henry's visit to Ireland.
- 1185. Prince John "Lord of Ireland."
- 1210. King John introduces English law.
- 1316. Scottish invasion—Athenree. Victory of Lords of the Pale.
- 1367. Statute of Kilkenny. Relations between English and Irish fixed.
- 1394. Richard II. at Waterford.
- 1494. Henry VII. attempts to subdue Ireland.
- 1494. Poyning's Law. All Irish Bills must receive consent of English Council.
- 1534. Rebellion of the Geraldines crushed.
- 1542. Henry VIII. "King of Ireland."
- 1547. Introduction of reformed religion.
- 1561-1567. Insurrection of Earl of Tyrone—Shan O'Neill.
- 1580. Papal invasion.
- 1597-1606. Rebellion of Hugh O'Neil.
- 1605. English law of real property established.
- 1610. Colonisation of Ulster.
- 1641. Irish Revolt.
- 1649-1650. Cromwell in Ireland.
- 1652. Ireland united to England.

- 1689. James II. lands at Kinsale.
- 1690. Battle of the Boyne. James defeated by William III.
- 1691. Treaty of Limerick. Freedom of Catholic religion secured.
- 1695. Treaty of Limerick annulled by Irish Parliament.
- 1704. Popery Act.
- 1782. Independent Irish Parliament.
- 1793. Conciliatory Acts passed.
- 1795. Lord Fitzwilliam recalled.
- 1796. First French invasion. Bantry Bay (failure).
- 1796. Wolfe Tone in France.
- 1798. Irish Rebellion.
- 1798. Killala Bay, second French invasion.
- 1798. Vinegar Hill.
- 1801. Legislative union of Great Britain and Ireland. Free trade between England and Ireland.
- 1803. Emmett's Insurrection.
- 1829. Catholic Emancipation Act.
- 1838. Irish Poor Law Act.
- 1838. Tithes Commutation Act.
- 1840. Municipal Corporation Act.
- 1846. O'Brien's Insurrection.
- 1846-1847. Great Famine.
- 1849, 1853, 1861. Queen's visits.
- 1849. Encumbered Estates Act.
- 1861. Municipal Act amended.
- 1865-1867. Fenian risings.
- 1867. Fenian revolt.
- 1869. Disestablishment of Irish Church.
- 1870. Gladstone's Land Act.
- 1870. Home Rule under Mr. Isaac Butt.
- 1881, 1887, 1897. Subsequent Land Acts.
- 1885. Lord Ashbourne's Act (Land Purchase).
- 1888. Lord Ashbourne's Land Purchase Act renewed.
- 1879. Home Rule movement under Mr. Parnell.
- 1879. Land League formed.
- 1880-1882. Outrages and Boycotting.
- 1881. National League.
- 1882. Phoenix Park murders.
- 1886. Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill rejected.
- 1886. Formation of Unionist Party.
- 1886. Plan of campaign.

- 1888. Plan of campaign and boycotting condemned by the Pope.
- 1889. Balfour relief works.
- 1891. Death of Parnell.
- 1893. Gladstone's Second Home Rule Bill rejected.
- 1898. Balfour's Local Government Bill passed.
- 1900. Queen Victoria's last visit.

ERIN ! THE TEAR AND THE SMILE IN THINE EYES.

“ Erin ! the tear and the smile in thine eyes
Blend like the rainbow that hangs in thy skies.
Shining through sorrow's stream,
Saddening through pleasure's beam,
Thy suns with doubtful gleam
Weep while they rise.

“ Erin ! thy silent tear shall never cease,
Erin ! thy languid smile shall ne'er increase,
Till, like the rainbow's light,
Thy various tints unite,
And form in Heaven's sight
One arch of peace ! ”

MOORE.

CHAPTER VII.

THE MAKING OF GREAT BRITAIN. UNION WITH IRELAND.

PART III.

THE history of the conquest of Ireland and of England's earlier government of the sister isle, form one of the least satisfactory chapters in the making of our Empire. The long story of the conquest is, alas! marked by frequent misunderstandings and injustices, which we all now heartily regret.

The difficulties of fusion between races so different as the Anglo-Saxon and Celtic were doubtless great, but these have been overcome in Scotland; and it is, let us hope, only a case of time and of patience, on both sides, for the union between Great Britain and Ireland to be as complete and thorough as that between England and Scotland.

Ireland's earliest history of fabulous antiquity, interwoven with all manner of beautiful myths and legends, we must leave behind, and begin with the arrival on its shores of the great Christian missionary, St.

Patrick, who commenced his glorious mission in 432. Never was teacher more gentle and persuasive than St. Patrick, or people more ready to embrace Christianity than were the Irish. Never was a great revolution swifter, milder, or more blessed in its results. St. Patrick died when seventy-five years old, it is supposed in 465, and before his death the crusade against Irish heathenism had in great measure done its magnificent work. Ireland was enthusiastic in her conversion.

Civilisation and Christianity went hand in hand. A new energy was born, arts and letters flourished, and within a century of St. Patrick's death Irish missionaries were battling against the paganism of our English forefathers. "England," says Mr. Lecky, "owed a part of her Christianity to Irish monks." Columba, an Irish refugee, had crossed to Scotland, and founded the far-famed monastery of Iona. Three centuries found Ireland prospering and unravished by hostile invaders, pursuing her missionary work abroad and nearer home, whither flocked many of the great scholars of the Continent, who had fled before invading destroyers, and Ireland became known as the "Island of Saints and Scholars," the welcoming refuge of learning, religion, and arts.

But art and learning were checked, and the saintly teaching of St. Patrick and the Church founded by him sank to a very low ebb in the succeeding centuries, during which Ireland was subjected to a series of

disastrous invasions from Danes, Normans, and Norwegians. The Irish proved brave enough in defending their country, and the invaders, time after time, were defeated and driven back, but not before the land had been scourged by their armies and wide tracks laid waste. At various times, too, the Danes succeeded in making settlements in Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, Cork, and Limerick, where they added to the general lawlessness and confusion, not being strong enough themselves to conquer the Irish population, while the Irish were not strong enough to expel them from their midst. Dr. Gardiner, writing of this time, says, "In the domain of art Ireland was inferior to no European nation; in metal work, in sculpture, and in the skilful illumination of manuscripts it surpassed them all. It had no mean school of poetry and song." But he goes on to point out, "In political development it lagged far behind. Ireland was still in the tribal stage, and had never been welded into unity by foreign conquerors, as Gaul had been welded into unity by the Romans, and as England had been welded into unity by the Normans. Tribe warred with tribe, and chief with chief. The efforts of chiefs to attain supremacy over the whole island had always ended in partial or complete failure." * In this long struggle for mastery, the personal bravery and bold impetuous spirit that characterise the Celt found an outlet whenever the

* See "A Student's History of England," by S. R. Gardiner.

pressure from outside was removed, and the five petty kingdoms of Ireland—Ulster, Leinster, Meath, Connaught, and Munster—were free to make war on each other.

The Church suffered in these turbulent times, and was no less disorganised than the State. Beyond the monastic bodies it exercised small influence. And Ireland in the twelfth century, alas! instead of having persevered in her glorious course of enlightenment and progress, had exhausted the magnificent vigour and energy that had rolled back the forces of heathendom and achieved a moral conquest under St. Patrick second to none in secular history. All the golden flood of light and learning and missionary zeal which had overflowed and poured into the countries of Europe, stopped when the land was given up to civil war. The strength and valour of the people were wasted in the interminable quarrels and jealousies of a divided State, and Ireland sank lower and lower until it struggled for a bare existence. Exaggerated accounts of the deplorable condition of Ireland—it was represented as having practically abandoned Christianity and relapsed into barbarism, in addition to being torn with internal dissensions—made both the Pope and the English Archbishop eager to restore religious order. As the Papacy claimed sovereignty over all islands, Pope Adrian IV. in 1155 granted the island of Ireland to Henry II. of England, sanctioning its invasion as a sacred crusade.

Henry had only just succeeded to the throne, and for some years he was busy re-establishing order in his own kingdom, and had no time to give to Ireland. When at last he intervened in the affairs of the sister-isle, Henry, apart from Adrian's grant, had legitimate grounds for declaring war, as the Irish had kidnapped and sold into slavery a large number of his English subjects. At the same time the Pope warmly encouraged the invasion of Ireland, being anxious to acquire ecclesiastical authority over the island, which had hitherto refused to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome, since the early Irish Church remained Celtic, not Latin.

The cities on the coast which had been conquered, and were still held by the Danes, such as Dublin and Waterford, were united with the English Church, and acknowledged the Pope as the Head of Christendom, but the Irish Church retained her independence, though she had lost all power over the people, and had sunk to a moral condition which put Henry in the position to declare that he proposed to conquer Ireland in order "to enlarge the bounds of the Church, to restrain the progress of vice, to correct the manners of its people, to plant virtue among them, and to extend the Christian religion."

Pleased with these laudable motives, Pope Adrian, the only Englishman who has filled the Papal throne, issued a Bull authorising Henry to take possession of Ireland on condition of his holding the country when

conquered as a fief of the Church, and compelling every family in the island to pay tribute to the See of Rome.

The moral support of the Pope did not go very far towards enabling Henry to bring the Irish so completely under his yoke as to make it possible for him to carry out the second condition.

When the invasion of Ireland began to be seriously contemplated, the difficulties which it presented became apparent, and the holy crusade was deferred for a time, while Henry engaged in more mundane, but more promising, warlike enterprises on the Continent.

It was not till thirteen years later, in 1168, that the Irish question was brought to the fore again by the arrival at the English Court of Dermid MacMurrough, King of Leinster, who had been driven out of his kingdom in one of the incessant civil wars. He had come to seek the aid of England in recovering his crown, and he swore fealty to Henry for the possessions which Henry's knights promised to help him to re-capture.

A small body of a hundred and forty knights, sixty men-at-arms, and three or four hundred Welsh archers under Robert Fitz-Stephen, went over to Ireland in 1169 to his aid. They were followed by the Earl of Pembroke, Richard de Clare, known in history as the famous Strongbow, who came on his own account to the aid of Dermid with fifteen hundred men.

Waterford and Dublin surrendered, and Strongbow, through a marriage with the daughter of Dermid, King of Leinster, followed by the timely death of his father-in-law, soon found himself lord over Dermid's kingdom. He gave himself the title of Earl of Leinster, and a reign of violence and cruelty was inaugurated for Ireland under its knightly rulers.

Henry of England, however, looked with doubtful eyes on this quick success of his powerful vassal. He had refused to sanction Strongbow's action in going to Dermid's aid, and was doubly displeased at the independent attitude adopted by the new Earl of Leinster. Possibly he thought that a man who could bite off the nose and lips from the head of a dead enemy, as Strongbow is reported to have done, was not a person especially fitted to "correct the manners" of the people of Ireland.

Henry summoned Strongbow to England, and made him surrender Dublin to the Crown and do homage for Leinster. He further announced his intention of accompanying Strongbow back to Ireland. Many of the Irish chiefs and the Synod of Bishops, whom he summoned to meet him at Cashel, were ready to acknowledge Henry as their lord, and had he been able to carry out his plans, remaining in Ireland long enough to arrange affairs on a firm footing, and to enforce law and order by placing himself at the head of a united people, first subduing those tribes that refused to submit to him, and then

building castles in different parts of the country to maintain his authority, the conquest of Ireland might have been permanently effected. But troubles in Normandy obliged him to leave Ireland while the pacification was still unfinished, and after his departure the fiery troubles and violence broke out again. In 1185 Henry sent over his son John to act as Lord of Ireland, but the foolish and ill-mannered prince's insults to the Irish chiefs in ridiculing their dress and rudely plucking their beards sufficiently illustrate his unfitness for any such government. He was soon recalled, and Ireland remained unconquered, though English influence was strong in the counties of Louth, Dublin, Meath, and Kildare, which were known about a century later as the English Pale.

And now there began the long struggle between the two races, the painful recollection of which has been far too persistently cherished, and cannot yet be said to have wholly died out, though the last genuine Irish grievance has been removed. The earnest efforts of the Crown to grant equal justice, liberty, freedom, and local self-government to the sister-island, the practical disappearance of the Irish tongue, intermarriage, education, free trade and easy communication between the two countries are gradually breaking down race prejudice and irrational hostility. The Lords of the Pale, as later on the Anglo-Irish chieftains were styled, far removed from the centre of government, grew independent of England, and,

instead of civilising the people under their rule, soon sank to the level of those around them, and joined the native chiefs in their cruel oppression of the Irish peasantry. Contemporary State papers bear testimony to the wretchedness of the common folk of Ireland. John, when he became King, went over to Ireland, and by severe measures temporarily enforced the use of English law ; but this did not prove acceptable to the Lords of the Pale, who, immediately the King had departed, lived once more upon what they could wring out of the oppressed English settlers, and snatch from the Irish in their forays outside the Pale.

In 1316 the Scotch invaded Ireland after the battle of Bannockburn, and the Irish welcomed Edward Bruce as their deliverer. But the Lords of the Pale, uniting, after a long period of strife among themselves, proved too strong for both the Scots and Irish, and defeated them at the battle of Athenree.

After this, anarchy and dissensions reigned as completely within and without the Pale as they had done in the days before the English "crusade." In 1367, Lionel, Duke of Clarence, was sent to Ireland to alter this state of things. He summoned the English colonists to a Parliament, and this Parliament passed the Statute of Kilkenny, under which the old idea of conquering Ireland was abandoned, and the relations between the two races were definitely fixed. All within the Pale were to be accounted English, all outside Irish. This Statute practically legalised a fierce

antagonism between the English settlers of the Pale and the Irish. It enacted "that the alliance of the English by marriage with the Irish be deemed high treason," and also that "if anie man of English race use an Irish name, Irish apparell, or anie other guise or fashion of the Irish, his lands shall be seized, and his body imprisoned, till he shall conform to English modes and customs."

Richard II. made an effort to put things on a better footing, and restore something like order. But the Lords of the Pale gave him a very cold welcome when he landed in Waterford, and received the submission of the native chiefs. As soon as he left the island his power was at an end, and from this time to that of Henry VII. the English rule in Ireland was no more than a name.

Henry VII., in common with his predecessors, tried to accomplish the pacification of Ireland, but, like them, he was not able to carry his work through to the end. He succeeded, however, in seizing the leader of the unruly Lords of the Pale, the powerful Earl of Kildare, thereby scaring them into a momentary submission; and in the same year, 1494, Poynings' Law, or the Statute of Drogheda, was passed, by which no Bill could be brought into the Irish Parliament unless it had already met with the approval of the English King and his Council, and, further, it enacted "that all English laws in force at that time should be obeyed in Ireland."

Irish affairs were in a more hopeless state than ever when Henry VIII. took the matter in hand, and, with his Vicar-General (Cromwell) to carry out his designs, he succeeded in crushing the Lords of the Pale, and in almost completely destroying the leading family among them—that of the Geraldines. The moral result of this success was far-reaching; the Irish without the Pale were awed by the strength of the English army. Wicklow and Waterford submitted to England, and English troops reduced the South of Ireland to obedience. Henry assumed the title of King, instead of Lord of Ireland, in 1542.

The only remaining question was how to govern the conquered island. Therein lay, as it has ever lain, the great difficulty.

A contemptuous ignorance of the Irish, their laws, their system of clan government and of tenure of land reigned in England. The only idea of English statesmen was to destroy all the national characteristics of the Irish, even to their dress and their language, and to Anglicise them in all respects. English laws were established, and the Irish chiefs, when confirmed in their possessions, were required to send their sons to be educated at the English Court. The same spirit dictated that no one who could not speak English was to receive ecclesiastical preferment, and the Archbishop of Dublin, Browne, “a mere creature of Henry and Cromwell,” as Gardiner calls

him, adopted the most shameful and violent measures for forcing religious changes on the people.

Henry's system of government in Ireland, however, so far as the chiefs were concerned, was, on the whole, one of conciliation rather than of coercion. The Irish nobles had their loyalty encouraged by considerable bribes, and the conditions on which they were accepted as loyal subjects were singularly righteous and untyrannical. They were to abstain from illegal wars and exactions on their fellow-subjects, to pay a certain tribute to the English Crown, and to render assistance in time of war. For the first time, the Irish chiefs were allowed to sit side by side with Englishmen at the Parliament in Dublin.

But before very long a new source of bitterness and strife arose from Henry's injudicious effort to force on Ireland the Protestant reforms, for which the Irish had no wish. When it became known that a change in their actual faith was demanded of them, and that a new liturgy was to take the place of the ancient Mass, the Irish, inside and outside the Pale, united in defence of their religion, and an element of discord was established which remains powerful to this day.

In spite, however, of the bitter feeling stirred up against England on account of this interference with the national creed, on the whole, the moderate system of government established by Henry tended towards pacification. But such results are slow of growth, and

though agriculture began to make progress, and order to be established in some districts which previously had been utterly savage, the country as a whole did not become civilised quickly enough to satisfy some of Henry's successors. The conciliatory policy was dropped, and high-handed measures were again taken, with disastrous results, and a cruel war broke out, lasting, with short interruptions, from 1561 to 1606. This war developed into a struggle, which soon became chronic, between the English settlers and the Celtic population, together with the descendants of the earlier settlers, who had adopted the native manners, faith, and language, and had become politically one people, under the leadership first of Shan O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, and afterwards of Hugh O'Neill.

In Elizabeth's reign the religious dissension provoked by the Act of Uniformity, which had no practical effect in Ireland, was inflamed by the Pope, who, in 1580, sent two thousand men with a legate to assist in driving the Protestant English out of Ireland.

They were unsuccessful ; their fort was taken by Lord Grey, the whole garrison massacred, and the supporters of the Papal invasion were pitilessly punished. Then Lord Desmond rose, but he was slain, and his domains laid waste.

The English were now more completely masters of Ireland than ever before ; but their hold over the country was a dominion of terror and force, and the

cruelties perpetrated by the conquering army make a painful page in the history of our Empire.

Further revolts were met with further cruelties.

When the flames of war had died down, England made some effort to establish order in the much-troubled country, but with poor success. It was in truth a struggle between civilisation and semi-barbarism, enlightenment and utter ignorance. England adhered more tenaciously than ever to the old policy of Anglicising Ireland, and Ireland clung with renewed persistence to the Celtic system of law and land tenure. At last, in 1605, the illegality of all native Irish tenures was affirmed, the tribal rules of succession abolished, and the English law of real property declared to be in force in Ireland. This irritated the Irish, and the Roman Catholics within the Pale joined forces with their co-religionists outside it, and it was only by the strong, wise, and patient efforts of Sir Arthur Chichester that the disturbance began to be allayed and some prospect to appear of the new *régime* being accepted by the Irish.

Unhappily, the Lord-Deputy's just and sensible schemes for Ireland were set aside. James I. was determined to destroy all Irish laws and customs, and if possible to uproot the Roman Catholic religion. Pacific measures were suddenly abandoned, and the greater part of northern Ireland declared forfeit to the Crown on pretext of one of the numerous revolts. The colonisation of Ulster followed. English and

Scottish settlers were brought over to occupy the lands of the dispossessed Irish. These proved good colonists, and in their hands Ulster rose to a condition of prosperity which has continued to this day. But the steady prosperity of one portion of the island, secured by an act of tyranny, was dearly bought at the cost of sullen disaffection all over the rest of Ireland, which broke forth later, and bore fruit in generations of distrust and lawlessness on the side of the Irish and of tyranny on that of England.

The colonisation, or, as it is sometimes called, the plantation, of Ulster, in 1610, was the introduction to the cruel story of the Irish Revolt, and its suppression by Cromwell, though the more immediate cause of that revolt was the government of Wentworth, and his policy of inflaming the Catholics and Protestants against each other.

The rising broke out in Ulster in 1641, and spread rapidly over the country. Thousands of English Protestants were massacred with every circumstance of cruelty and horror, but it is denied that a massacre was deliberately planned. The rising amounted to a national rebellion. The Confederate Catholics purported to hold a commission from King Charles I., and though this was a forgery, Charles treated the hideous incident with an indifference which contrasted forcibly with the fanatical zeal of Cromwell when he came into power. Determined to avenge the massacre of the Protestants, Cromwell deluged the unhappy

country with blood when he landed at Dublin in 1649. He marched from victory to victory, but it is only fair to say that he issued the most stringent orders to "all officers and soldiers not to abuse, rob, or execute cruelties upon the people of the country unless they be actually in arms." But when captured with arms in their hands, he had no mercy. At Wexford another wholesale slaughter was carried out.

Cromwell's conquest was as effective as force can be. What he left unfinished, Ireton and Ludlow completed. Thousands of the Irish perished by sword or famine ; many were transported to the West Indies to labour as convicts, women and children were shipped for virtual slavery, and forty thousand men received permission to enlist in the French and Spanish armies. Those who remained in their native land, of which the Province of Connaught alone was left to them, were treated as a conquered race. The greater part of Ireland shared the fate which had befallen Ulster. As Green feelingly remarks, "No such doom had ever fallen on a nation in modern times as fell upon Ireland in its new settlement."

In 1652, at the close of this awful war, Ireland was united to England on much the same terms as a captured and disabled vessel is taken in tow by her captor.

From this time the English maintained severe rule in Ireland till the reign of James II., when the Earl of Tyrconnel, an Irishman and a Roman Catholic, was

made Lord-Lieutenant. Under him all the English were turned out of office. An Irish Roman Catholic army was raised of fifty thousand men. James looked to this army to support him when, after his deposition by William of Orange, he made an attempt to regain his kingdom. In 1689 James landed at Kinsale. He entered Dublin, where the Parliament, composed exclusively of his adherents, passed a huge Bill of attainder against nearly three thousand persons. But though the Irish race welcomed James as the lawful King, the English and Scottish colonists regarded him as the enemy of their faith and nation, and they took refuge in Londonderry and Enniskillen. In Londonderry, when the Governor would have surrendered to James and his Irish troops, the inhabitants shut the gate in his face, and held a desperate siege, until, at the end of three months, succour reached them from William's ships, and the town was saved.

To meet the threatened danger, William III., in 1690, brought a force over to Ireland and defeated James and his troops in the Battle of the Boyne. That was the beginning of a series of English victories ending in another period of oppression, not as ruthless as the wholesale slaughters perpetrated by Cromwell's soldiers, but more utterly crushing. Limerick held out to the last, defended by the brave soldier-patriot, Patrick Sarsfield. Every Irishman is proud of "the sword of Sarsfield," as Mr. Disraeli once declared in the House of Commons.

It won for the Irish Catholics, in 1691, the Treaty of Limerick, by which, amongst other things, they were promised religious freedom, and Sarsfield and his soldiers were permitted to sail for France. The treaty was shamefully annulled by the Irish Parliament in 1695, and Limerick is still called "the City of the broken treaty." A new series of penal laws were then framed to extinguish the religion of Ireland, and Ireland was now a land "where all hope of national freedom was lost," Green writes; "at peace, but with a peace of despair."

The two great struggles, the religious struggle (the attempt to extinguish Roman Catholicism) and the land-tenure struggle (the attempt first to force an alien system of land tenure, and later to give the land to the imported English and Scottish settlers), were aggravated under the reign of William III.; and for the first time the Roman Catholics—those who clung to the national religion—were excluded from the Irish Parliament. Henceforth only Protestants elected by Protestants might legislate for Roman Catholic Ireland. Under Queen Anne and George I. the rights of the Irish Parliament were further curtailed. In the latter reign the appellate jurisdiction of the Irish House of Lords over Irish cases was cancelled by the English Parliament.

Under all these curtailments of its original privileges, the Irish Parliament had become a very poor representative institution, and unworthy of the name

of Parliament. Gradually there grew up in Ireland amongst the Protestant party a strong feeling of protest against the restrictions imposed on the legislature of the country. The great leader of this popular movement was Henry Grattan, and he was enthusiastically seconded by Flood. When the war with the American Colonies was over, the members of the Irish Parliament, with Grattan at their head, came forward to press their petition for the restoration of an independent legislature.

There was now an army in Ireland of forty thousand volunteers, raised to repel a threatened French invasion. These volunteers were in perfect sympathy with the agitation for Parliamentary independence, and ready to sustain its demands. With these men at their back, and the Celtic gift of eloquence on their tongues, the Irish members carried their point. On the motion of Fox in 1782, an Act was passed by the British Parliament by which the Irish Parliament was released from the judicial and legislative supremacy exercised over it by Great Britain. It enabled "the King, Lords and Commons of Ireland to make laws for the people of Ireland," and Henry Grattan, overjoyed at this triumph, exclaimed, "Ireland is now a nation." Ireland in a measure was constitutionally free, and this independence lasted for eighteen years.

But there were two sources of weakness in Grattan's Parliament. First, it was exclusively a Protestant

Parliament. No Catholic was eligible either to sit in it or to vote for its members, consequently three-fourths of the population were excluded from representation ; in the second place, the House of Commons had no control over the executive government. In Ireland the executive power was vested in the Lord-Lieutenant, appointed by and responsible to the Government in England, and not, as in England, exercised by ministers who were themselves responsible to the Crown and Parliament of their country. There was no constitutional faculty by which the two Parliaments could act in conjunction on matters affecting the interests of both their peoples equally ; nor was the Protestant fourth of the population represented in any true sense in the Parliament. Out of its three hundred members, Dr. Gardiner points out, "two hundred were chosen by less than half that number of persons who controlled the elections of the petty boroughs."

The independence of the Irish Parliament did not bring liberty or prosperity to the people. The whole country was in the grasp of a few noble families and of the Irish Executive, which was inspired and supported by England. Bribed by a lavish distribution of places and pensions, the corrupt faction which formed the Parliamentary majority sacrificed independence for emoluments received from the English Viceroys, while the great mass of the Irish people went unprotected and unrelieved, and were left to

struggle on unaided in a pitiable state of destitution and poverty. The harsh restrictions of William III. had virtually destroyed commerce ; trade with foreign nations was prohibited, while Irish products were shut off from England by heavy custom dues, and the country groaned under the bitter penal laws passed by the Protestant Parliament.

The condition of the Irish peasantry was nearly as deplorable as that which, just at this time, roused the lower orders in France to a great and terrible revolution. Pitt, the great English statesman, who felt for the "distressful country" and foresaw the inevitable storm gathering, did what he could to avert it. His first proposal was that there should be complete free trade between the two countries, and that Ireland should contribute a fixed sum towards the maintenance of the British Navy, which protected her shores as well as those of England. To this arrangement the Dublin Parliament agreed, but the jealousy of English manufacturers broke into loud protest, and Pitt was forced to relinquish his original scheme and to formulate another. But this was so hampered by restrictions that the Dublin Government declined to entertain it.

Meanwhile the Presbyterians, who formed the majority of the Ulster population, and who were specially prominent in the flourishing town of Belfast, grew more and more dissatisfied with the state of the Irish Government. Like the Catholics, they were

refused representation and office, and they resented the injustice of the denial, a feeling shared by many of the Protestants themselves, for religious bigotry amongst the educated classes in Ulster had in a large measure died out. The more enlightened Protestants were quite willing to admit their Catholic fellow-subjects to the franchise, and Grattan, at the head of the movement, strenuously laboured for Catholic Emancipation. In 1791 the Society of the United Irishmen was founded at Belfast by Wolfe Tone to assist Grattan's reforms, its primary object being to unite Catholics and Protestants against the British Government, and to place them on a political equality without any disqualification of creed.

At last certain concessions were obtained from the Irish Parliament, and in 1793 "two Acts were passed, the one freeing Catholics from some of the worst penalties under which they suffered, and the other allowing them to vote for members of Parliament." * They were also admitted to practise at the Bar. Many other Catholic disabilities were removed, and Lord Fitzwilliam was sent over to support a full measure of freedom, but doubts as to whether Catholic Emancipation would not be a violation of the Coronation Oath assailed the mind of George III., and Lord Fitzwilliam was recalled in 1795. His recall overwhelmed Grattan and his friends with disappointment, and Ireland was left once more in the hands of a

* See Gardiner's "History of England."

legislature, described by Gardiner as a "Parliament dominated by place-hunters, who, under the pretence of maintaining Protestantism, banded themselves together with the object of gaining wealth and position."

So evil and unsound a system could not hope to live, and it was far too provocative and aggressive to pass unchallenged. The Irish Parliament threw out Grattan's Bill for Catholic Emancipation, and when all hope of obtaining fair treatment from the Parliament died out there were violent outbursts. Catholics committed outrages upon the Protestants, and the Protestants, the Government Party, calling themselves Orangemen after William III., retaliated with equal violence. The United Irishmen threw themselves on the Catholic side, and in 1796 Wolfe Tone started off to France to urge the Directory to bring an army into Ireland and establish a Republic. The French invasion, attempted by Hoche in the same year, failed, but the Irish Catholics broke out into the terrible Rebellion of 1798, and during this awful time over 150,000 of the Irish people were slain. After several engagements, in which the British were not always successful, General Lake finally defeated the peasant insurgents at Vinegar Hill in 1798. Two months previously the French had made a second attempt to invade Ireland by landing in Killala Bay, in Mayo, but were ultimately forced to surrender.

It seemed to Pitt, as probably to the whole of the civilised world, that such a state of affairs as had for

long existed in Ireland must be brought to an end at any cost. The Irish Parliament had shown itself miserably unworthy of its functions, and many of the members gave a final proof of their character by submitting to be bought over to consent to the union of the English and Irish Parliaments. In 1801 the Union took place, one hundred Irish members being admitted to the British House of Commons, and thirty-two peers (four spiritual and twenty-eight temporal) were elected for life to the House of Lords. This arrangement lasted until the disestablishment of the Irish Church in 1869, when the spiritual peers ceased to exist. Free trade was at last established between England and Ireland, and taxation apportioned upon what were considered equitable lines.

In all directions the condition of Ireland was improved, and could Pitt's large schemes for religious equality have been carried out, a gradual unity might have been built up between England and Ireland, such as exists between England and Scotland. This, however, was not to be. The Sovereign, supported by a large section of the population on both sides of the Channel, declined to permit these measures to be carried into effect, and, unhappily, Ireland has continued to be the scene of perpetual difficulties and of opposing parties.

Her condition, however, has never been so wretched as it was before the Union. Indeed, it would be

difficult to point to any country in the Old World which has made during this century greater relative progress than Ireland. But although the Union of the two countries was in the long run followed by increased prosperity to Ireland, it was not to be expected that a Union in great measure purchased by British gold would be very acceptable to the mass of the Irish people, or that years of oppression could be forgotten in a day. So it was only natural that insurrections, or attempts at insurrection, should for some considerable time occur ; and as more and more freedom and liberty fell to the lot of the Irish, that each should become a little less violent than the former, and that each should be supported by fewer members of influential and educated classes. Thus in 1803 occurred Emmett's insurrection ; in 1846 Smith O'Brien's ; and in 1867 the Fenian revolt ;—all suppressed with ease and little bloodshed.

In 1829, owing in great measure to the eloquence and energy of the great Daniel O'Connell, complete Catholic emancipation was conceded by the British Parliament, and in 1838 an Act was passed introducing into Ireland laws for the Relief of the Poor. Then commenced, in 1843, the great movement for the repeal of the Union, which was indissolubly associated with the name of O'Connell. It failed, as all other attempts have failed, but it served to draw the attention of England to the grievances of Ireland, and to hasten their removal.

One of the most serious causes of Irish discontent and crime was the collection of tithes from the Catholic peasants for the maintenance of the Clergy of the Protestant Episcopal Church. The grievance was removed in 1838 by the passing of the Tithe Commutation Act, and two years later another injustice and cause of scandal came to an end.

Before 1840 the municipal institutions of Ireland were monopolised by the Protestants, offices were openly sold, and corruption was rampant. In that year this blot on the fair fame of the country was erased by the passing of the Irish Municipal Corporation Act, which was amended in 1861.

The condition of the poor in Ireland was greatly alleviated by the introduction in 1838 of the Poor Law system, founded upon lines similar to those adopted by England in 1834.

Before the passing of this Act the misery and destitution of the Irish poor were far greater than in England amongst similar classes. In 1837 the proportion of paupers in Ireland to the rest of the population was twice as great as in England. It was well that this beneficent Act was passed before the advent of the great famine of 1846, or the sufferings of the people, terrible as they were, would have been still more acute.

This awful calamity, caused by a failure in the potato-crop, led to a large diminution in the population of the country, partly through death, but

principally through the enormous emigration to the United States which then set in, and which continued for many years. The British Government and the English people made great exertions to alleviate the sufferings of the poor, and Parliament voted £10,000,000 for this purpose.

In 1849 Her Majesty Queen Victoria visited Ireland, and received a loyal welcome from all classes. Shortly afterwards the first Court under the Encumbered Estates Act was held in Dublin. This was an Act to facilitate the sale of land in the hands of bankrupt owners, and was the means of transferring many such estates to solvent men with capital at their backs, and possessed of the knowledge and energy necessary for the development of the land. The number of estates sold up to 1858 was 2,380, producing £22,000,000. In 1853 the Queen revisited Ireland, and the first Dublin Exhibition was opened. In 1861 her late Majesty, accompanied by the Prince Consort and the then Prince of Wales, repeated her visit.

The years 1865-67 were made eventful by the foolish efforts of the Fenian Brotherhood, said to have been formed by James Stephens, to separate Ireland by force from Great Britain, and to establish a Republic. In 1866 the American Fenians invaded Canada, and in 1867 partial risings took place in Dublin, Kerry, and Kilmallock, and the Fenians tried to seize Chester Castle. All these attempts were easily

frustrated. In 1865 James Stephens was captured and imprisoned, but subsequently escaped to France.

In 1869 Mr. Gladstone passed a Bill for the disestablishment of the Irish Protestant Episcopal Church, and thus put an end to an old-standing complaint of religious inequality.

The year 1870 saw the passing of Mr. Gladstone's Irish Land Bill, to be followed later by several other Acts, drawn up with a view to improve the position of the Irish tenant-farmer, to render him independent of his landlord, and give him an interest in the soil. These were passed in 1881, 1887, and 1897.

By Lord Ashbourne's Act of 1885 and the Act of 1888, £10,000,000 were granted by Parliament to enable the tenants to purchase from the landlords the freehold of their farms.

By means of the above-mentioned legislation, the Irish tenant-farmer, who represents the majority of the population, has been fixed in the soil, and given, without purchase, an interest in it, called "Tenant Right," which he can sell in the open market, and which, when disposed of, has often produced more than the landlord is able to obtain by the sale of his nominal property. The amount paid by the tenant in rent is fixed, not by the landlord, but by Government officials, acting under a Court called the Irish Land Commission. Rack or excessive renting is therefore now an impossibility. The tenant cannot be evicted for any cause but that of non-payment of

rent, and before he can be evicted full compensation must be paid him for all improvements he may have made on the farm. He cannot be evicted unless he is an entire twelve months in arrear, and the landlord cannot recover more than two years' arrears of rent ; and if the rent of the tenant is less than £100 per annum he is given an extra six months to redeem.

If a tenant desires to buy his holding, the Government lends him the entire money at four per cent. for forty-nine years, at the end of which period he has paid off by this means the entire capital and interest, and finds himself the sole owner of his farm.

These extraordinary privileges are possessed by no other tenant-farmer either in the New or Old World. The Irish tenant-farmers' rents have been reduced by some twenty-five per cent. and more, and in some cases by as much as fifty per cent., whilst in some parts of the country small landowners have ceased to collect rent, and where estates were encumbered have been brought to destitution.

The Irish labourer has also been benefited by Parliament enabling him to obtain at a reasonable rent good cottage accommodation through the Guardians of his Union, who are empowered, under certain conditions, to build labourers' cottages out of the rates. This legislation has had the effect of covering the land with comfortable stone and brick dwellings, for which, as a rule, only one shilling a week is demanded by the Guardians in rent.

But we must go back a little, for Irish affairs have occupied a very conspicuous place, and they have taken up a considerable proportion of the time of Parliament during the reign of Queen Victoria, especially towards the latter part. The year 1870 saw the formation, under Mr. Isaac Butt, of the "Home Rule" movement, an agitation for the establishment of a separate Irish Parliament. Out of this Home Rule party there sprang a determined body of Nationalist members, who set themselves with deliberate purpose to obstruct all business in the House of Commons until it had forced this claim of Ireland on the attention of Parliament and on the nation at large. On the death of Mr. Butt, Mr. Shaw succeeded as leader of the Home Rule party, but in a very short time the more active policy of Mr. Charles Stewart Parnell in opposing the payment of rent, and in obstructing British legislation in Parliament, obtained the support of the party, and he became the recognised and undisputed leader. At this time there was great disturbance in Ireland, arising out of the land struggle, which was then going on between some of the landlords and the peasantry. Between the years 1880 and 1882 many murderous outrages were committed, nearly all of which were connected with the land trouble. Meanwhile, "boycotting" (or, to employ Mr. Parnell's expression, "the treating of obnoxious persons as moral lepers or outcasts") was, on the advice of Mr. Parnell and his

lieutenants, resorted to, in order to enforce the edicts of an organisation called the "Land League," formed in 1879 for the purpose of compelling the landlords to submit to the demands of the agitators. This powerful league was suppressed in 1881, but it was immediately revived under the name of the National League.

In May, 1882, the whole civilised world was horrified by the dastardly murders of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke. Lord Frederick Cavendish, the newly appointed secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, had only just arrived to take up his duties. Mr. Burke was the permanent Under-Secretary. These two gentlemen were murdered in Phoenix Park, Dublin, by a band of assassins, calling themselves the "Invincibles." The murderers were betrayed by their own associates, and, after being brought to trial, five of them were found guilty, and they were executed.

The agitation for Home Rule continued to grow. The new Franchise Bill, passed in 1885, which lowered the qualifications of the county voters, placing them on the same level with the voters in towns, added two millions of voters to the number of constituencies, and gave a popular suffrage to Ireland as well as to England. This measure gave a great deal more force to the Home Rule party. Out of the one hundred and three seats which make up the Irish representation, the Home Rule party carried off no



COLLEGE GREEN, DUBLIN.

Photo by Wm. Lawrence, Dublin.

fewer than eighty-six, and, in 1885, Mr. Parnell found himself at the head of a compact Parliamentary party of eighty-six members.

The result of the elections in Ireland apparently converted Mr. Gladstone to the Irish opinions as to a Home Parliament for Ireland. When previously in office, Mr. Gladstone had imprisoned Mr. Parnell, and he had unscathingly denounced the agitators as "marching through bloodshed and rapine to the dismemberment of the Empire." But after the election, in 1886, he avowed himself in favour of Home Rule, and brought in a Bill to give to Ireland a Domestic Parliament on College Green, in Dublin. The Bill was rejected on the Second Reading. Parliament dissolved on the Bill, and Mr. Gladstone appealed to the country in a General Election. He met with a heavy defeat. The Home Rule Bill led to the withdrawal from the Liberal party of the more moderate elements, and to the formation of the Unionist party by a junction, but not an amalgamation, of the dissentient Liberals with the Conservatives. Thus the Liberal party split up into two—the Liberal Unionists and the Gladstonian Liberals, and Lord Salisbury, at the head of the Conservative party, came into office with a very large majority.

The persistent struggle for Irish Home Rule continued to absorb much of the time of Parliament. In Ireland the land was still a source of grievous contention, and this same year (1886) fresh machinery

was set in motion against the landlords. This was the newly established "plan of campaign"—a scheme for driving the landlords to accept such low rents as had arbitrarily, and of course illegally, been fixed by the National League members. The "plan of campaign" was subsequently condemned in 1888 by the Pope on moral grounds, as was also the system of "boycotting," after receiving a report drawn up by Monsignor Persico, who had been sent by His Holiness on a special mission to Ireland to examine into and report on the condition of affairs in the island.

Mr. Arthur Balfour, when Unionist Chief Secretary for Ireland in 1889, 1890, and 1891, did very much for the improvement of the country, and consequently for the benefit of the people themselves, by inducing Parliament to vote large sums of money for the construction of light railways and roads, and for the supply of seed potatoes to congested and distressed districts.

About this time—that is, in 1891—Mr. Parnell died, and the Home Rule party in its turn split up into several hostile divisions. But before this happened its political power had waned. By the secession from the Liberal party of the moderate elements, on the introduction by Mr. Gladstone of his Home Rule Bill, and by the rejection of this measure in 1886; by the death of Parnell in 1891, and the weakening of his party by faction; by the rejection of Gladstone's

second Home Rule Bill in the House of Lords in 1893 by the enormous majority of 419 to 41 ; and by the election of the Salisbury administrations of 1886, 1895, and 1900, the Home Rule cause received a series of blows from which it has never recovered.

In 1898 the Irish Chief Secretary in Lord Salisbury's Government, Mr. Gerald Balfour, brother of Mr. Arthur Balfour, introduced and passed through Parliament a Bill to grant to Ireland a system of local government practically similar to that accorded to England in 1888.

By this measure the last genuine Irish grievance has been removed, and the people of Ireland now enjoy as complete religious and civil liberty as their fellow-subjects of Great Britain, and greater consideration at the hands of Parliament in matters appertaining to taxation, the ownership and tenancy of land, and Imperial financial aid towards national development.

It is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when ancient oppressions and animosities will be forgotten by all, and a united Ireland will loyally and contentedly take her place alongside the sister countries of England, Wales, and Scotland. Not regarding herself as a conquered land, but as enjoying equal privileges, equal rights, and equal responsibilities ; recognising that union is strength, and that only by the possession of a strong and united Government can the British Isles retain that

place amongst the nations which has brought to so many gallant sons of Ireland distinction, honours, and wealth. Under that same united Government the mass of the people of Ireland are vastly richer, better educated, better housed, better fed, and better clothed than they were at the time of the Union.

In 1852 the deposits in the Irish Joint Stock Banks amounted to £10,000,000; in 1885 they had reached £29,000,000, notwithstanding a diminution in the population; in 1837 the number of schools was 1384, the Parliamentary grant was £50,000, and the number of pupils 169,548; in 1884 the number of schools had grown to 7832, the grant had become £756,027, and the number of pupils 1,089,079; in 1841 the number of good farmhouses having five to nine rooms was 264,184, and of superior houses 40,080; in 1881 the good farmhouses had increased to 422,241, and the best class of houses to 66,727.

The following words written by an Irish Catholic writer, and quoted from Mr. Ward's interesting work, entitled "The Reign of Queen Victoria," bear eloquent testimony to the progress of Ireland during this eventful period.

Sir Rowland Blennerhassett says—

"During the fifty years of Her Majesty's reign, great as have been the changes in every part of the world, it may be safely asserted that nowhere have they been greater and deeper than in Ireland. All the prominent evils in the political state of the

country have been removed. The law under which legal provision is made for the poor has not only rendered impossible those scenes of shame and horror so often described by writers on Ireland fifty years ago ; it has also laid the basis of a system of local government capable of indefinite expansion. Since the passing of the Municipal Reform Act the corporate property of cities and towns can no longer be administered for the benefit of a favoured few. No civil disabilities now press upon the Irish Catholics. The burden of tithe has been removed. The Church of a small minority no longer occupies a place of privilege. When Queen Victoria came to the throne, Catholics had no power to dispose of landed property, by deed or will, for charitable purposes. The Charitable Bequests Act, which was passed in the seventh and eighth years of her reign, redressed this grievance. Religious liberty and religious equality now exist to the fullest extent, and the Roman Catholic Church especially enjoys a far larger measure of freedom in Ireland than in any country which professes the Roman Catholic faith. But the greatest change which has taken place in Ireland during the Queen's reign is the alteration in the status of the occupiers of the soil. In 1837 the Irish tenant was absolutely at the mercy of the landlord or his agent, or worse still, of the Tithe Proctor. His life was full of care, and his position often not so good as that of the slaves who laboured in the cane-fields of South

Carolina. Now, there is no holder of land in any European country who enjoys privileges anything like so great and wide-reaching as the Legislature has bestowed on the Irish tenant-farmer."

At no moment of her history since the third century after St. Patrick could we leave beautiful Ireland so proud and exultant as to-day—proud, and justly proud, of her brave and gallant sons who, under the leadership of an Irish Field-Marshal, now Commander-in-Chief of the entire forces of the British Empire, have done such splendid deeds that the glories of the South African campaign ring with their names. Search the world over and no finer soldiers will be found than the sons of Erin. Her late Majesty's order commanding the establishment of a regiment of Irish Guards, and ordering the wearing of the Shamrock by Irish regiments on St. Patrick's Day in recognition of the valour of her Irish soldiers, will be cherished traditions for all time. These Royal recognitions of Irish bravery struck home to the hearts of the Irish people. And the memory of Queen Victoria's visit to Ireland in 1900—a gracious visit into which was crowded the pent-up wealth of affection and reverence and welcome that loyal Ireland entertained for the beloved Sovereign—should bury for good and all the "old, unhappy, far-off things and battles long ago." *

* Mr. Balfour.

THE SMALL ISLANDS AROUND GREAT BRITAIN.

CHAPTER VIII.

LEADING DATES.

6th to 9th century. Rule of Welsh dynasty.

A. D. 620 (about). Temporary subjection to Edwin of Northumbria.

872 (after). The coming of Harald Häfager and the Norwegians.

1098 (about). Subdued by Magnus III., King of Norway.

1266. Ceded to Scotland by the Norwegians.

1290-1313. Occupied by Edward I. English rule.

1313. Scottish dominion regained.

1343. Isle of Man captured by Earl of Salisbury, who is made King by Edward III.

1406. Granted in perpetuity to Sir John Stanley.

1651. Title "Lord of Man" substituted for "King."

1651. Surrender to Parliamentary forces.

1660. Derby (Stanley) family reinstated at the Restoration.

1735. Duke of Atholl inherits.

1765. Ceded to Britain.

“ And prayer is made, and praise is given,
By all things near and far ;
The ocean looketh up to heaven,
And mirrors every star.

“ Its waves are kneeling on the strand,
As kneels the human knee,
Their white locks bowing to the sand,
The priesthood of the sea !

“ They pour their glittering treasures forth,
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And all the listening hills of earth
Take up the song they sing.”

WHITTIER.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

AMONG the numerous small islands which dot the coast of Britain, only the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands can be taken as having an independent existence. The Isle of Wight forms part of Hampshire ; the Orkney and Shetland Islands are a county of Scotland on exactly the same footing as Banff or Inverness.

But the Isle of Man, lying in the midst of the Irish Sea, has a distinct and separate history and a constitution and government of its own. It has changed hands again and again, but through all its varying fortunes it has retained its individuality. It lies sixteen miles south of Burrow Head, in Wigtownshire, twenty-seven south-west of St. Bees Head, and the same distance eastwards of Strangford Lough.

The rugged little island is equally a joy to the lover of nature and to the antiquary. Its length is scarcely more than thirty-three miles, and its breadth about twelve and a half miles, containing an area of 227 square miles, with a population of about 55,000.

But, small as it is, few spots better merit the epithets "beautiful" and "interesting." The tiny islet, the Calf of Man, at the south-western extremity, is famous for its magnificent and wildly picturesque sea-front, though its whole area is only about eight hundred acres. The island is hilly and picturesque throughout, but in parts the wild nature of the scenery constitutes one of the grandest spectacles imaginable. Lofty cliffs, sombre and imposing, tower above the flashing waters ; the greenish rock gleaming coal-black through the dazzling whiteness of the spray flung high on its face. A chain of mountains, the highest of which is Snaefell, rising over 2000 feet above sea-level, runs in a somewhat zigzag line through the island from north-east to south-west. Streams abound, but in many cases the working of the lead-mines has destroyed the fish, which formerly were plentiful. These lead-mines are very valuable. The lead ore is of a specially rich quality, and the wealth of the Great Laxey Mine on the east coast, and that of Foxdale near the west, must be taken as compensation for the spoiling of the angler's sport. The Great Laxey Mine, with its remarkable wheel, is one of the principal lead-mines in the United Kingdom.

The herring and cod fisheries are the staple industry of the island, and employ a large number of the men. Agriculture and farming are other prosperous branches of industry, and a good quality of wheat is grown and shipped for English markets,

whilst some prime fat cattle are reared and annually sent over. The manufactures are of little importance.

The chief towns are Douglas, the capital, Peel, Castletown, and Ramsey. A fine service of fast steamers plies between Douglas and Liverpool, and a submarine telegraphic cable is laid between Maughold Head and St. Bees Head. Railways on the single narrow-gauge system were introduced in 1873, and extensive harbour works and improvements have been carried out with vigour and thoroughness.

The history of the Isle of Man—the Roman *Mevania*—is involved in obscurity previous to the sixth century. But from the sixth until well-nigh the end of the ninth century it was governed by a line of Welsh kings. We do not know the origin of the settlement of the Welsh Celts in the Isle of Man, whether they were driven forth by quarrels amongst their own Celtic neighbours or by the pressure of other tribes; or whether they simply followed the instinctive leading of the bold and active spirit of their race, and crossed in their coracles bent on pillage and conquest, and ended by making themselves masters of the island. But early in the seventh century, about the year 620, it was wrested from them for a short time by Edwin, King of Northumbria. Edwin, with the aid of a fleet of galleys equipped at Chester, captured both *Mevania* (Man), and *Mona* (Anglesey), and in the year 626 he was over-lord of these two islands and of Britain. The next invaders

that we read of came to stay. Some time towards the end of the ninth century a war-band of Norwegian sea-rovers, led by Harald Haarfager, appeared in their pirate-boats off the coast of Man, and before the sudden swoop of the fierce Northern freebooters the Welsh, hardy and unyielding as ever, were forcibly driven out, and the new-comers took possession of the island. The Scandinavian conquerors ruled until the year 1266, when King Magnus VI. of Norway, as the consequence of Haco's unsuccessful expedition against the Scots in 1263, was obliged to relinquish the Isle of Man and the Hebrides to Alexander III. of Scotland.

When the Scottish King, Alexander, died, the Manx, disliking their rulers, in a formal document dated 1290, invited Edward I. of England to be their lord, and placed themselves under his protection, a position which the English King promptly accepted. As might be expected, the Scots by no means acquiesced in the secession of the Isle of Man from the Scottish Kingdom to that of England, and whenever opportunity arose, attempts were made to regain possession.

As the result of a struggle in 1313, the Isle of Man once more fell under Scottish dominion for a period of thirty years, and a new generation had grown up before the English, under Montacute, Earl of Salisbury, led a successful expedition to the island, drove out the Scots, and finally regained Man for the English Crown. In return for the Earl's services

and conquest, in 1343, Edward III., the reigning monarch, granted him the island, and conferred on him the title of King of Man.

Succeeding English sovereigns bestowed the island on their favourites up to the year 1406, when, on the attainder of the Earl of Northumberland, its late owner, Henry IV. granted it in perpetuity to Sir John Stanley and his heirs, who held it from the English Crown by the fee of a cast of falcons at the coronation of each succeeding Sovereign. The Stanleys continued, excepting for one brief break in the reign of Elizabeth, to hold regal style and sway over their small kingdom, until the storms of the English civil wars burst out and overwhelmed the country, reaching the remote little island and its rulers.

In 1651 it was decreed that the style of Lord of Man should henceforward be substituted for the title of King. In that year, whilst the Countess of Derby held the isle against the Parliamentary forces, internal divisions split the kingdom into factions, and those who were opposed to the ruling Manx Government surrendered the island to the parliamentary troops. The Countess of Derby was dispossessed, and subsequently the lordship of the Isle of Man was granted to Lord Fairfax. The new-comer's rule only lasted until the Restoration, when the Derby or Stanley family were reinstated. They and their descendants continued to govern Man in a direct line until the death of James, the tenth Earl of Derby, in 1735.

without children, whereupon the island passed once more, but amicably this time, into Scottish hands, and James, second Duke of Athol, inherited, by right of descent through the youngest daughter of James, seventh Earl of Derby.

Those were the palmy days of the smuggling trade, and the rugged, sea-swept coast of the Isle of Man afforded unique facilities for the smugglers' operations ; and the amount of illegitimate traffic which went on seriously injured the Imperial revenue. Desirous of being in a position to stop the growing evil, the British Government induced the new Lord of Man, in 1765, to part with his rights as sovereign to Britain for a sum of £70,000, together with an annuity of £2000 a year. Certain remaining interests and patronage which the Duke retained were also purchased in 1829 by the Crown, the money paid for the Isle of Man, from first to last, amounting to nearly £493,000.

In the Isle of Man, perhaps, more vividly than in any other corner of the British Isles, we are brought into close contact with hoary antiquity, and may better discern the character, ancient prescriptions, and usages of our Scandinavian forefathers and their immediate descendants and successors. Throughout the island one constantly comes across the so-called Druidical remains, Runic crosses, and other venerable relics, all eloquent interpreters of the life and manifold activities of its early people. Some of the architectural ruins in the island are of great beauty and interest. One



TYNWALD HILL, ISLE OF MAN.

Photo by Photochrom Co., Ltd.

of the finest is Castle Rushen, founded as early as 947, by Guthred, son of King Orry, and considered by experts to be the most perfect specimen of a building of the tenth century now in existence. The ruins of the Abbey at Ballasalla, Peel Castle and the cathedral of St. German, both dating from the twelfth century, are also very beautiful.

But the most interesting historical relic, guarded and transmitted from century to century until the present day, is the famous Tynwald Hill at St. John's. It is situated nine miles from Douglas, and is commonly supposed to be in the very centre of the island. The hill is an artificial mound, built up by the hand of man, circular in form, with four platforms. It is a magnificent and perfect relic of the old Scandinavian conquerors and their industry. Tradition says that the earth of which it is composed was carried for the purpose from every parish in the island. The very name links us with the past, and serves as a threefold record, preserving the language, aspirations, and usages of its builders. The word is identical with the Icelandic Tingvalla, and signifies the field of the popular assembly; and the Court of Tynwald, as the Manx Legislative Assembly is styled, accurately interprets its name. This ancient Assembly, the Court of Tynwald, after receiving assent from the reigning monarch, proclaims its Acts from Tynwald Hill, and not until this quaint ceremony has taken place do the Acts become law.

Not the least interesting part of Manx history is its constitution, for the Isle of Man enjoys its own Parliament, and has its special law officers and courts, which institutions are practically its own, and it is in a great measure independent of the Imperial Government. Once a year, on the eve of Old Midsummer Day, the ancient and imposing ceremony of publicly proclaiming the Acts of Tynwald from Tynwald Hill takes place. The Court of Tynwald attends in full state, and the Acts are promulgated in the English and Manx languages. The Assembly is composed of the Lieutenant-Governor and eight officials, who form the Council, or Upper House. These are the Bishop, Attorney-General, Clerk of the Rolls, First Deemster, Second Deemster (judges), Receiver-General, Vicar-General, and Diocesan Registrar, who appear in their robes of office. And there is also present, the very important House of Keys, as the twenty-four representatives of the Lower House are called. These two Houses form the Court of Tynwald, the last survival of the Parliaments held in the open air, for which even Iceland has now become too advanced.

In the appellation of the venerable bishopric of the Isle of Man, said by some to have been founded by St. Patrick as early as the year 447, we have another link in the ancient record. The word *Sudoreys* is Scandinavian for "Southern Isles," and the bishopric of Sudoreys was at one time (1113) united to that of Man; hence the title of Sodor and Man. The name

Sodor applies to the islet of Holm Peel, on which the cathedral church of the diocese stands.* Other writers assert that Amphibalus was bishop of the see as early as A.D. 360, which gives a yet greater antiquity to the foundation.

* See "Chambers' Encyclopædia."

CHAPTER IX.

LEADING DATES.

- A.D. 10th century. Channel Islands annexed to Duchy of Normandy.
1066. Added to English Crown by William of Normandy.
1199-1216. King John and the Channel Islands.
1298. Norman Isles plundered by French.
1340. Edward III. recovers Guernsey.
1372. Du Guesclin before Mont Orgueil Castle
1422-1461. The Channel Islands under Henry VI.
1461-1467. Channel Islands French.
1467-1483. Under Edward IV.
1467. Islands reconquered.
1547-1553. Under Edward VI.
1558-1603. Under Elizabeth.
1625-1649. Under Charles I.
1649-1658. Cromwell and the Channel Islands.
1692. Battle of La Hogue.
1781. Major Pierson's gallant defence.
1856. Elected deputies.

“ So sweet the air, so moderate the clime,
None sickly lives, or dies before his time ;
Heaven sure has kept this spot of earth uncurs’d,
To show how all things were created first.”

WALTON.

CHAPTER IX.

THE CHANNEL ISLANDS.

THE Channel Islands are a charming cluster of small islands situated off the north-west coast of France, and on the western side of the department of La Manche. The group consists of a large number of islands, some of which are merely rocks, and are uninhabited. About twelve miles separate the nearest points from the mainland of France, and eighty miles from that of England. The principal islands are Jersey (termed Cæsarea by the Romans), Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark ; amongst the others are Herm, the Casquets, Burhou, Brecqhou, Jethou, the Minquiers, and the Chausseys. Altogether they cover an area of seventy-five square miles, and contain a population of about 184,000, employed for the most part in agriculture, horticulture, trading, and fishing. St. Helier, the capital of Jersey, is one hundred miles from Southampton, and forty miles from St. Malo. Alderney possesses admirable natural strategic advantages, and with suitable fortifications might be made a strong naval base.



The exquisite variety and beauty of these lovely islands are too well known to require any description here, nor is it necessary to dwell on the delightful climate and the sunny charm of the second summer, *the Petit Été de Saint Martin*, as the people describe it. Originally, no doubt, the little group formed a portion of the continent, until gradually the encroachments of the sea completely isolated them, and they became a little brood apart. But they were not unknown or unvisited. The Romans held them in the third and fourth centuries after Christ. Missionaries from Ireland, the "Isle of Saints and Scholars," found their way to the Channel Islands, and carried to them the religion of Christ, whilst other religious teachers came over from Brittany. Less gentle visitors than these appeared, for the sea-rovers from the North, both Saxon and Dane, in turn have left traces of a partial occupation of the islands. Reference is made to Guernsey in the Edda, one of the two books of sagas and songs containing the Scandinavian mythology, written by bards about the eleventh or twelfth centuries. Arms belonging to the old Vikings have also been found in the island.

For a good many years the Channel Islands remained subject to Brittany, but when the Cotentin—the peninsula projecting from the north-west of Normandy, and which now forms the northern part of the department of La Manche—was attached to the Duchy of Normandy in the early part of the tenth

century, they were included in the annexation. As part of the Duchy of Normandy, the Norman Isles, as they were called up to the middle of the last century, were added to the English Crown by William of Normandy when he became William I. of England, and, in spite of repeated attempts to separate them from the British Crown, they have continued in our possession with one brief interregnum of six years.

At the time of their annexation to Normandy, although the existing Norman institutions were duly established in the Channel Islands, the feudal system, that long chain of feudal service described elsewhere in these pages, was not introduced in its complete form. For one thing, the Norman seigneurs were often absentees. Then, again, neither manorial dues nor military service had existence in the islands, and the island militia from its earliest organisation preserved a parochial character, and was never, as in England, a feudal institution.

But it is with the reign of King John that the real history of the Channel Islands begins. When Normandy was seized by Philip Augustus on the plea that John of England had forfeited that duchy by contumacy, the same sentence of confiscation was carried out with regard to the fiefs of the seigneurs who remained faithful to the English King. Some of these Norman barons had settled in Jersey, "where they formed the chief notables and members of such local government as might be in existence."

Immediately the intentions of Philip were known, the Norman seigneurs unhesitatingly gave John their loyal support, and made a gallant resistance against the attacks of the French King. John, in return, seems to have governed these loyal little islands better than he did the rest of his kingdom. They retained their own laws, customs, and language, and he voluntarily gave them a "little Charter," known ever afterwards by his name, which was the Magna Charta of the "Norman Isles." He confirmed and strengthened their governing privileges, and "appointed coroners sworn to watch over the judicial interests of the Crown. By degrees the seigneurs ceased to attend the sittings of the states, where the rural population was represented by the constables, or mayors, of the parishes or communes ; these, together with the rectors, became associated with the coroners, or jurats, as they were called ; and the whole assembly was presided over by a bailiff, or lieutenant-governor, appointed by the Crown. There was also a lord-lieutenant, *comes*, or governor, but he was often an absentee. In the process of time this latter post became chiefly titular ; the office of lieutenant-governor was separated from that of bailiff, though the two were occasionally held by the same person, and a regular system of judicial and executive administration came into action." *

John also fortified the harbours, a very necessary

* "Chambers' Encyclopædia."

precaution, since an attack on the Channel Islands by the enemy proved an invariable episode of each of our earlier wars with France. Not indeed until the reign of Henry VI., when for some twenty years the French Crown seemed actually won, did France abandon her persistent attempts to conquer and annex the Channel Islands, and even then the peace was destined not to be permanent.

In the reign of Edward I. the French took possession of Southampton, Jersey, and Guernsey, and gave them over to plunder and the flames. The English fleet, however, promptly recaptured the Norman Isles ; and this harsh lesson suggested the necessity for keeping a fleet at sea in readiness to oppose our foes across the Channel, which, at the representation of Parliament, the King consented should be done.

In the fourteenth century the French again captured Guernsey, and repeated the old tactics of burning and pillage. To avenge the French ravages and regain the island, Edward III., the reigning monarch, gathered a large fleet from the Cinque Ports, and appeared before Guernsey in 1340, and with the assistance of the neighbouring island of Jersey, completely defeated the enemy. Edward compelled them to surrender the island, showing no quarter to the vanquished. The French admiral was taken alive. He was brought into the presence of King Edward, who commanded him to be hanged



MOUNT ORGUEIL CASTLE, JERSEY.

Photo by Photochrom Co., Ltd.



without an instant's delay from the yard-arm of his own vessel.

The struggle for the possession of the Channel Islands was destined to be of long continuance. France persisted in her determination to wrest the islands from us, if possible, and at one time it seemed more than probable that the victory would be hers. The latter years of Edward III. were shadowed with disappointment and failure, and the years beginning with 1371 and ending with 1374 were disastrous for England and England's pride. Spain held the sea against us, and our fortunes in France were at a low ebb. In 1372 the combined fleets of France and Spain made a fierce attack upon Guernsey. The renowned Du Guesclin, Constable of France, was in the field against us. He appeared before Jersey with 10,000 men and besieged Mont Orgueil Castle. The position seemed desperate; the enemy was led by the greatest warrior of the age, and the defenders, who were holding the Castle against fearful odds, at last reluctantly consented to surrender on a given day if no succour arrived in the interval. Du Guesclin was now confident that the Castle, and with it the island, were assured to France. But he was fated to be disappointed of his hoped-for conquest. Timely succour reached the gallant defenders from England; the siege was raised, and the intentions of France were once more frustrated. She renewed her attempts, however, with fresh activity and violence in the reigns of the Henries.

At the close of the reign of Henry VI. the loyalty of the Channel Islands was severely tried. Queen Margaret, in her contest for the Crown, sought the aid of Pierre de Briège, grand seneschal of Normandy, and promised him as a reward the sovereignty of the Norman Isles. He consented to give her the help she asked, and sent Surdeval with a strong force to take Jersey, and Mont Orgueil was surrendered by the commandant, who was a devoted adherent of the Queen. Having met with some success in England, de Briège came over to the Channel Islands in 1461 and took possession of them. He held them for six years, though he could not gain the good-will and allegiance of more than a portion of the inhabitants.

Early in the reign of Edward IV. the English Crown resumed its suzerainty over the islands. The King sent Sir Robert Harleston with a squadron to expel the French governor and liberate both Guernsey and Jersey from the invader. Many of the islanders eagerly joined forces with Harleston, and he carried out the King's orders with complete success. After retaking Guernsey, Sir Robert Harleston became its governor in the place of de Briège, and the arms of the island were from that time surmounted by a laurel crest.

Henry VII., bent on repressing the privileges and influence of the aristocracy throughout his kingdom, considerably curtailed the feudal institutions existing in the Channel Islands ; but he was careful to

encourage the militia, and by certain improvements he rendered the system more popular.

The struggle of the Reformation was repeated in these little communities, where the new doctrine took deep root, and the arrival of a number of Huguenot refugees aided the movement.

In the reign of Edward VI. the French once more renewed their attempts upon the Norman Islands. Admiral Strozzi was sent with a large fleet and 2000 men with orders to reduce the gallant little islands. He was met by an English fleet under Admiral Winter, and though the English were only about 800 men all told, they yet managed to win the day, and destroyed half of the French force.

Queen Elizabeth, whose eventful reign witnessed so much that was remarkable in the development and progress of our country, did not neglect the loyal little islands lying in tempting proximity to France. Under her they were severed from the spiritual sway of the Bishop of Coutances, and in 1568 they were formally attached to the See of Winchester. The Queen further directed her attention to improving the defences of the islands, adding strongholds and repairing fortifications wherever needed. The Castle at St. Helier, in Jersey, which bears her name, was one of those improved and strengthened at this time. Nor was the proper defence of the Channel Islands Elizabeth's sole consideration in this portion of her realm; lasting effects of her reign are to be seen in

the provision made for the education of the children by the foundation of the college or grammar school of St. Peter Port, in Guernsey, which, like the Castle at St. Helier, is called after her.

In the civil wars between Charles I. and the Parliament, the majority of the inhabitants of Guernsey ranged themselves on the side of Parliament. Cornet Castle, however, which commanded the harbour, held out manfully for Charles ; and Jersey, true to its traditions of loyalty, also stuck faithfully to the cause of its king, and fitted out armed cruisers, which considerably hampered English commerce. The officers of the Commonwealth, greatly irritated by these operations, determined to reduce the Royalists to submission. Well aware that half measures were useless where the Royalist sympathy was so strong, Parliament sent against them a force so formidable that they were powerless to offer any substantial resistance, and the islanders were at last obliged to submit to the ruling power with the best grace they could muster. After Jersey had been taken, Castle Cornet was, in 1651, also reduced to submission. No extreme measures were taken, and although nominally under the Commonwealth, no change whatever was made in the constitution, and the islands continued to be governed by their own municipal institutions as before.

In the reign of Charles II. the French again threatened an invasion of the Channel Islands, and active measures were taken to repulse the expected

attack, one memorable step being the reorganisation of the militia of the islands, which had existed ever since Norman times, though it was not honoured by the appellation "Royal" until the reign of William IV.

In William III.'s reign the war between England and France kept the Channel Islands in a state of perpetual agitation, but the famous victory off Cape La Hogue dissipated their fears, and the inhabitants emerged from the war at all events the richer for the long struggle with France ; for we learn that during the reigns of William and Anne fifteen hundred or more prizes were captured by the privateers of the Norman Isles. Their old privilege of neutrality, which had ceased to be desirable, was removed, and the inhabitants of the little islands freely embarked on their daring course of privateering, which Burke declared made them "one of the naval powers of the world."

One of the most gallant episodes in the stirring history of the Channel Islands occurred in 1781, after the French had taken up the cause of our revolted American Colonies. The French, headed by an adventurer styling himself Baron de Rullecourt, landed by night in Jersey, marched to St. Helier, and, surprising the Governor in his bed, forced him to capitulate. The inhabitants, however, were not thus tamely to be handed over. Alarm guns were fired. Captain Mulcaster, the chief engineer officer of the island, took possession of Elizabeth Castle, and

stoutly defended it against the invaders. De Rullecourt, unable to reduce the Castle to submission by force of arms, now tried coercion of another kind. Corbett, the Governor, who was a prisoner in his hands, was intimidated by his captors, and obliged to write a letter with the command that Elizabeth Castle and the troops which defended it should surrender. Probably anticipating the nature of its contents, Captain Mulcaster, who was resolved not to yield, calmly put the letter which was brought to him into his pocket unread, and resolutely continued to hold his position.

The French, baffled by his determined stand, now retreated to Royal Square, and there awaited the arrival of the large reinforcement that was expected. In the mean time another brave English soldier, Major Pierson, in command of the Jersey Militia, was advancing upon St. Helier. Hearing of his advance, De Rullecourt next tried his powers of persuasion upon him. A messenger was sent post haste begging Pierson to submit and so avoid further bloodshed, the messenger adding that the English cause was quite hopeless, since ten thousand more French troops were just about to land. But Pierson was not to be intimidated. He bore a soldier's heart under a soldier's coat, and he well knew that he could depend on his men. "Go to your general," he said, with proud confidence, "and tell him that if he had twice ten thousand soldiers, the brave troops you

have seen are determined in less than an hour to drive him from his post."

A fierce engagement took place between the English and French, in which De Rullecourt was killed, and his troops completely defeated. Unhappily, the gallant Pierson did not live to see his victory. He was mortally wounded early in the action; and those of our readers who have visited the National Gallery will remember the fine picture by Copley representing the scene of the heroic Pierson's death. On the canvas Copley's son, afterwards Lord Lyndhurst, appears—a little child flying with his mother and nurse from the theatre of carnage and of blood.

Since that heroic engagement the most important event in the history of Jersey has been the introduction of elected deputies into the legislature. This was in 1856. The present constitution is a modification and development of the ancient institutions. The basis of the local law is the *Coutumier de Normandie*. The local states can pass byelaws having force for three years without the royal assent, and can enact statutes which must be authorised by the Crown. French is the official language, and the people fondly cling to their ancient tongue—*Langue d'oil*.

The thrift, industry, and prosperity of the inhabitants have always been marked characteristics. The agricultural population is made up of small yeomen proprietors, who hold parcels of land varying from

five to twenty acres, most of which are cultivated by the owners themselves. The beautiful Jersey and Guernsey breed of cows is deservedly famous.

The military service of the Channel Islands is historic. For a thousand years a local militia has been raised. It is sometimes loosely asserted that the Channel Islands present the only instance of compulsory military service throughout the Empire; but to say this is to overlook the English Militia Ballot Act, which is still in existence, and it is a fact also that in several important colonies the principle of compulsory military service is recognised by law. In the case of the Channel Islands there is a Militia Law for each island, and the local militia force is raised and governed under the Militia Law of 1881. There are three artillery regiments (1093) and six regiments of light infantry (2896). "Service is compulsory, regiments being recruited by districts, in each of which a *régistre du district* is kept, containing the names of all men in that district liable to service. Exemptions are recognised, but all men between the ages of sixteen and fifty-nine must appear under one or other of the following classifications: (1) effectives and recruits; (2) 1st reserve, fit; (3) 1st reserve, unfit; (4) 2nd reserve, fit; (5) 2nd reserve, unfit. Boys and recruits have to undergo a fixed number of compulsory drills, and are inspected before they can be brought on to the active list of their regiment; they must also have attained the age of twenty,

or, in special cases, of eighteen. The annual training lasts for nine days, and there is in addition an annual musketry course. Similar arrangements apply to the artillery. The permanent staff is analogous to that for the militia of the United Kingdom. The 1st reserve contains men who have been transferred from the active list up to the age of forty-five, and the 2nd reserve comprises all those between the ages of forty-five and sixty." *

Some trouble arose a short time ago which led to a breach of military discipline, a portion of the militia refusing to obey the orders of a new commandant. Since then certain alterations have been made in the regulations. This was but a momentary interruption to a long record of loyal service, the Channel Islands having at all times gallantly sustained their honourable and unique traditions, in giving spontaneous and whole-hearted service to the State. The Empire has no more true and law-abiding citizens than the brave and industrious people of the Channel Islands, whose privileges have been freely and constantly recognised by the Crown.

Jersey, the chief of these gallant little islands, has always held a very proper view concerning the military importance of its geographical position. Exceptional precautions and exceptional efforts were essential if the small, isolated communities were not to be wiped out in the constant troubles with France.

* See "The Army Book for the British Empire."

History shows good reason for the old fortress castles that mounted guard over the harbours; and amongst these, Mont Orgueil holds the place of honour for dogged, watchful, and most valiant service. By a singular fate, many of its gallant defenders are forgotten, whilst the short sojourn of Charles II. when fleeing to France, and the imprisonment of Prynne within its walls, have been carefully recorded. To-day the extensive defences at Fort Regent remind us of the military quality of Jersey, whilst there is abundant evidence of growth and prosperity on the civil side.

St. Peter Port in Guernsey is one of the quaintest old towns within King Edward's dominions. Much of it has been rebuilt, but in the older parts there are narrow, crooked streets which have echoed every note in the long record of struggle. For centuries they rang with the noise and tumult of the free fighting that went on in the Channel—that favourite battle-ground of the islanders. The ancient church and school that reared this hardy race are yet in existence, though the fabric of the church must have known much restoration, and the venerable school launched by Elizabeth in 1563 was rebuilt in 1823. A little to the north-east of the college is the Victoria Tower, a memorial of her late Majesty's visit in 1846—the first peaceful visit made by any one of its sovereigns since the Norman conquest.

GREAT BRITAIN IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

CHAPTER X.

LEADING DATES.

- 710. Invasion by Moors.
- 711. Taken by Moors from the Visigoths.
- 1309. Taken by Alonzo de Guzman from the Moors.
- 1333. Recaptured by Moors.
- 1335 and 1349. Besieged by Alfonzo.
- 1462. Taken by the Christians.
- 1468. Duke Medina Sidonia takes possession.
- 1502. Spain re-annexes it to the Crown of Castile.
- 1704. Gibraltar taken by Sir George Rooke.
- 1704. Besieged by Spanish and French.
- 1705. Siege raised by Sir John Leake.
- 1713. Gibraltar ceded by Treaty of Utrecht.
- 1715. George I. proposes to restore Gibraltar.
- 1720. Abortive attempt by Spain to regain possession.
- 1727. Spanish land attack.
- 1757. Pitt's offer to surrender Gibraltar unsupported.
- 1779-1783. Siege of Gibraltar (Elliott's gallant defence).
- 1781. Brilliant sortie by garrison.
- 1781. Garrison temporarily relieved by Admiral Darby.
- 1782. Combined attack repulsed.
- 1782. Batteries in galleries commenced.

- 1782. Garrison relieved by Lord Howe.
- 1783. Peace declared.
- 1783. England declines to relinquish Gibraltar.
- 1868-1869. Discussion respecting the exchange of Gibraltar for Ceuta.
- 1896. £3,000,000 voted for docks and defences.

“Attend, all ye who list to hear our noble England’s praise,
I tell of the thrice famous deeds she wrought in ancient days.”
MACAULAY.

CHAPTER X

GIBRALTAR.

GIBRALTAR, one of the smallest of our dependencies, is, as we all know, one of the most important fortresses and outworks of the British Empire. It is a great natural citadel. A glance at the map will show its remarkable geographical position. Situated on the extreme southern point of the south-east coast of Spain, in $36^{\circ} 6' 30''$ north latitude and $5^{\circ} 21' 12''$ west longitude, the "Rock" stands, a grim and terrible guardian over the narrow passage between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, keeping iron watch over the tideless waters of that great inland sea. Across the strait, fifteen miles distant at this point, and standing on the opposite mainland of Africa, is the Spanish fortress of Ceuta. These two natural fortresses—Gibraltar, the Mons Calpe, and Ceuta, the Abyla of the ancients—were the famous Pillars of Hercules, of which Latin writers speak in awed admiration, and through whose portals the Mediterranean mariners of antiquity hesitated to venture, fearful of the dangerous currents of the great ocean beyond.

Gibraltar is one of the strongest fortresses in the



GIBRALTAR.



world. Every one knows its stern forbidding outline, the long high mountain running out southwards into the sea, which gives it its familiar name, the "Rock," and that curious neck of flat, sandy, low-lying plain to the north of it called the North Front, which unites it with the mainland of Spain. The whole territory is but a spit of land two and three-quarters miles long, and at its widest point only three-quarters of a mile across, with a total area of one and seven-eighths square miles. But from the strategist's point of view it is a strip of immense importance, and ranks second to none.

At its loftiest summit the Rock is 1439 feet above the level of the sea. At the northern end it rises with startling abruptness. Showing heavy cannon in its embrasures, and covering the approaches of Spain, it towers up suddenly out of the narrow sandy isthmus, which is only about 1100 yards in width. This strip of sandy plain constitutes a neutral ground, across which, facing each other, stand the sentries of Britain and Spain. On the east nature has made its tall cliffs no less inaccessible. North and east its face is a sheer precipice, impregnable and defiant of attack. From the North Front the sullen cliffs run southwards, a long, stark, abysmal ridge sternly covering the blue waters of the Mediterranean. Beyond O'Hara's Tower a gradual slope begins, and continues until the Rock abruptly terminates at the water's edge in a precipitous cliff one hundred feet high at Europa Point. On the

south overlooking the narrow strait, and on the west overlooking the Bay at the base of the mountain where the little town lies, and also on the summit, batteries of heavy guns have been constructed. The Rock is only accessible on the western side, where it slopes down to meet the waters of the Bay, across which, about five miles distant, lies the Spanish town and port of Algeciras. Where the cliffs end and beyond the New Mole, strong artificial ramparts protect the fortress. Thus girt and crowned with batteries, the fortress stands on a site almost impregnable to any attack from land which is not supported by sea. It "towers over the water, sombre, massive, blue, impregnable, the first of the linked stations on the King's highway to India," as Sir Edwin Arnold has written of it.

The value of Gibraltar to the Empire from a political, naval, and commercial point of view cannot be exaggerated. Not only is it the key to the Mediterranean, and the storehouse of immense reserves of munition and coal, but its possession gives us command over the important Suez route to the East. We have only to look at the map again to see what an advantage such a stronghold must inevitably be in war time to a maritime power like Great Britain. Of late years Parliament and the nation have come to realise this ; and in March, 1896, to the great joy of naval and military men and other experts, who had pressed for an extension of the fortifications and

harbour works at Gibraltar, £3,000,000 were voted in the House of Commons for the purpose of strengthening its defences, building docks for the repairs of our ironclads, and for creating a fortified harbour, dock-yard, and coaling-station for the use of the fleet. The fortress has a strong military garrison, an establishment of 5000 men in time of peace, the whole cost of which is borne by the Imperial Government. The naval establishment numbers about 250 men, but its strength is being increased. Supported by such a fortress and naval base, a British fleet should be able to prevent at all times hostile ships from either entering or leaving the Mediterranean without leave.

But, happily, the arts of war are not Gibraltar's only associations ; and though in time of stress and peril the value of the Rock must be enhanced because of its peerless position, it renders its thousandfold services in the arts of peace. "Defence and readiness to fight," says Lord Rosebery, "are vital enough in their way, but not less vital is the civil and domestic side ;" and the value of Gibraltar to the commerce of the Empire is great. It is a port of registry. On December 31, 1898, there were in the harbour twenty-seven vessels, the total showing 6034 tons. The Bay of Gibraltar, one side of which is formed by the promontory, is a piece of water some eight miles long, and varying from four to five miles across. It affords excellent anchorage for shipping, and Gibraltar is a coaling-station of the highest importance. "Every port over

which the Union Jack floats is as free to all the world as England," and ever since the British occupation Gibraltar has been a free port. Thousands of ships annually enter and leave the harbour, four-fifths of them carrying the British flag. It is also an *entrepôt* of the extensive trade carried on between England and Northern Africa, for which it has special advantages. With a view to yet further increasing its value and utility to the Empire, extensive improvements and additions are now being carried out for the Admiralty. Three new graving docks are being made, and "the northern end of the harbour is to be enclosed by a mole, built at the joint cost of the Imperial Government and the local revenue, by which greatly increased facilities for coaling merchant ships and for landing and shipping cargo will be afforded." * These works were commenced in 1897, and will, it is estimated, be completed in four and a half years. The estimated cost is set down at £4,369,000. Doubts have recently been expressed as to the advisability of proceeding with the construction of the three new docks and other naval works on the western side of the Rock. It is pointed out that the whole of the anchorage will be within easy range of modern artillery, and the shipping therein would be "liable to be exposed to a converging fire from a segment of nearly half a circle of the shore round the Bay of Gibraltar." And it has been suggested that it would

* See "Colonial Office List."

be wiser to construct the new works on the eastern side, but this is practically impossible, owing to the depth of water at this point. As long as Britain possesses command of the sea, there need not be much fear of serious danger to the Rock from hostile batteries.

The little town is a military citadel, and its citizens in a certain fashion are under military discipline. At sunset the gates are closed. The civilian population of the southern part of the town live east and south-east of the New Mole, and the military establishment occupies the whole of the remainder. The town, with its teeming population, is cradled on the north-western slope of the rocky eminence. After the great siege scarcely one brick was left on another, and the town had to be almost entirely rebuilt. One long street traverses the whole length. There is a handsome cathedral church, a magnificent library, good schools, and delightful public gardens called the Alameda. A few words will suffice as to the nature of the government of the Crown Colony of Gibraltar. Practically it is one big citadel, governed by the General in command of the garrison. The civil government is indeed carried on by a Council, but in all matters appertaining to the safety of the fortress, although nominally advised, the military Governor enjoys, subject to orders from home, the supreme power, and is responsible for the government of the Colony. For some years H.R.H. the

Duke of Kent, the father of our late beloved Queen, held the post of Governor of Gibraltar, and by his judicious governorship and self-sacrificing efforts raised the character of the garrison, which had suffered from laxity of discipline, and was earning an unenviable reputation for drunkenness. The effect of His Royal Highness's exertions to bring about a healthier and purer condition in the barrack-room, and to diminish drunkenness and crime by suppressing the inordinate number of wine and spirit houses, was shown by the extraordinary fall in the death-rate of Gibraltar. During his residence it decreased by more than one-half.

Gibraltar has been in our possession since July, 1704, when it was wrested from the Spaniards during the War of the Spanish Succession, by Admiral Sir George Rooke, in co-operation with a land force of 1800 English and Dutch troops under Prince George of Hesse Darmstadt, the siege being the direct consequence of a repulse at Barcelona. At the time, and for long after, the English nation showed no enthusiasm over its capture, and the news of Rooke's victory was received very coldly by the Government of the day. More than once serious thoughts have been entertained at home of restoring this priceless possession to Spain, or of exchanging it for the vastly inferior fortress of Ceuta, on the African coast. Now, however, that John Bull has dipped so largely into his pocket for the defence and development of

Gibraltar, it may be hoped that he has once and for all recognised the immense value of this unrivalled strategical position.

It is popularly supposed that Gibraltar, except for its capture by the English, is a virgin fortress, a fallacy curiously wide of the mark, since for centuries the Rock continued to be the scene of desperate conflicts under the Moors, and after it was snatched from them in 1309 by Alonzo de Guzman it changed hands again and again, and experienced no fewer than fourteen historical sieges, ending with the great siege under Eliott.

When the shores of the Mediterranean were the great centre of civilisation in ancient days, Gibraltar was successively held by the Phœnicians and the Carthaginians until the powerful military Empire of Rome conquered the great trading States settled along the basin of the Mediterranean, and Gibraltar became a Roman citadel. When the Roman Empire was, in its turn, overrun by the Germanic tribes of Northern Europe on the one side, and by the Goths on the other, Gibraltar fell into the hands of the Visigoths. The next historical period begins with the irruption of the Arabs into Spain. In 710 the Gothic Kingdom, which had existed in Spain for 300 years, came to an end through the shameful treachery of Count Julian. To avenge a private injury, Count Julian invited Emir Moussa, the Governor of the West African Saracenic Provinces, to dethrone King

Roderic. Five hundred Moors landed at Tarifa under Tarif-Abu-Zara, who gave his name to the Spanish town of Tarifa. The following year the Moorish general, Tarik-Ibn-Zeyad, landed at the foot of the Rock with an army of 12,000 men, and captured the town of Heraclea and the neighbouring country. From its new conqueror the Rock takes its name, Gibraltar being a corruption of the Arabic form *Gibel-al-Tarik*, which signifies the height, or rock, of Tarik. Throughout the great conflict between the Moors and the Christians, a desperate struggle was maintained for the possession of this important military post. The first siege was in 1309, when Alonzo de Guzman took it for Ferdinand of Castile. The Moors, under Ismail ben Ferez, besieged it without success in 1315, but recovered possession in 1333 under Abul-Hasor, the Sultan of Fez. It was unsuccessfully besieged by the Christians under Alfonzo of Castile in 1335, and again in 1349, and the Moors remained its masters until the year 1462, when Henry IV. of Castile succeeded in capturing it. Previous to this, in 1410, the inhabitants, anxious to rid themselves of the terrible rule of the Moorish Kingdom of Granada, had placed themselves under the protection of the Emperor of Morocco, but the Granadian Moors recaptured the stronghold in 1411. The Christians made one other unsuccessful attempt at besieging it in 1435, but were, as we have said, finally successful in 1462.

Anarchy prevailing in Spain, the Spanish Infante

Don Alonzo, then only eleven years of age, conferred on the Duke of Medina Sidonia the city and territory of Gibraltar, and in 1468 the Duke laid siege to his formidable property, and succeeded in gaining possession of it ; but in '1502 Spain reannexed it to the Crown of Castile. Upon this the third Duke of Medina Sidonia attempted to repossess himself of Gibraltar, but failing in the attempt, he made restitution of the town. For the conduct of the inhabitants on this occasion, Gibraltar received the title of "Most Loyal," and a coat-of-arms was granted to the city, consisting of a castle with a golden key pendant. These arms still hang over the southern gate of the city alongside those of her late Majesty Queen Victoria.* A far more formidable siege was sustained in 1540, at the hands of the corsairs of Algiers, who were only driven off by the Spanish garrison after a most heroic resistance.

Having thus rapidly run through the frequent changes of ownership which have occurred to the Fortress City, we now come to the eleventh siege since its first capture from the Moors, namely, the daring assault of 1704, when it was taken from the Spaniards by the British under Sir George Rooke, assisted by our Dutch allies ; and it has remained in our possession ever since, in spite of every attempt on the part of France and Spain to deprive us of it. After the desperate attack by the combined forces of the

* February, 1901.

pirates of Algiers, the Spaniards had increased the fortifications of the fortress, and it was deemed to be impregnable by all Europe. English sailors, however, dispelled the illusion, and the little Spanish garrison surrendered to our arms. Ably seconded by Sir C. Shovel, Admiral Rooke sailed into the Bay, landed 1800 men, and opened fire on July 21st. A deadly cannonade was poured from the English boats, and the soldiers pushed forward. The defenders made a gallant stand, but after two days the Old Mole and the Ragged Staff were gained, the garrison surrendered, and the English flag was hoisted. Since then Gibraltar has withstood three more sieges. The first of these occurred in the year that it was taken by us. No sooner was the English garrison in possession than the Spaniards made a determined endeavour to recapture the famous stronghold, and it was attacked by a combined land force of 17,000 Spaniards and French under the Marquis of Villadacias, supported by a powerful French squadron of twelve ships of the line and seven frigates. All communication with the land side was cut off, and for six months the beleaguered garrison of 7000 men held out manfully against the furious attacks, and at last succeeded in repulsing the enemy with a loss of 10,000 men.

Nine years later, by the Treaty of Utrecht signed in 1713, Gibraltar was formally ceded to Great Britain. More than half a century before, Cromwell had cast his eagle eye upon the strong Spanish fortress, and

had written to that trusty servant of his, Admiral Blake, asking for his opinion. "The town and castle of Gibraltar, if possessed and made tenable by us, would it not be both an advantage to our trade and an annoyance to the Spaniard, and enable us, without keeping so great a fleet on that coast, with six nimble frigates lodged there, to do the Spaniard more harm than by a fleet, and ease our own charge?" * "The question of wresting Gibraltar from Spain was often discussed by the Protector and his admirals," adds Mr. Temple. But the importance of Gibraltar was not so apparent to Cromwell's successors. News of its capture was received, as we have said elsewhere, with no enthusiasm at home, and frequent negotiations have been entered into for its restoration to Spain. In 1715 George I. suggested to the Court of Spain the possibility of handing back Gibraltar; but the Spaniards refused to grant an equivalent, or to be bound by any condition, and so, happily for England, the negotiations fell through. Shortly afterwards the treaty entered into at Vienna between Philip and the Emperor led to a fresh siege of Gibraltar in 1727, lasting this time for five months, and only terminating with the war. It was entirely a land attack, unsupported from the sea. The Spanish army numbered 19,270 men under the Count de las Torres. The English garrison at the commencement of hostilities consisted of 1500 men under General Clayton, but

* Quoted in "The Making of the Empire," by Arthur Temple.

these were afterwards reinforced by 5481 men under the Earl of Portmore. The Spanish batteries consisted of 92 guns and 72 mortars, to which the garrison could only oppose 58 guns; but by degrees the English increased their fire until, with 100 guns in position and numerous mortars on the heights, they completely silenced the besiegers' fire, and forced them to raise the siege.

After this attack, which Carlyle describes as an "utterly unmemorable siege," considerable additions and improvements were made to the fortifications. But, in spite of all that had been done, Gibraltar was regarded with lukewarm interest by even a great statesman like Pitt. In the year 1757 he endeavoured to obtain the assistance of Spain in recovering Minorca by offering to surrender Gibraltar, but the nation had not forgotten the gallant defence of 1727, and refused to be parties to the scheme. So much opposition was offered at home that the negotiations fell through. Three years later, in 1760, an infamous plot to massacre the officers and hand over the fortress to the Spaniards was exposed, and its ringleaders deservedly punished. After this cowardly conspiracy, in which no fewer than 730 men were implicated, peace was outwardly maintained at Gibraltar. But on the first sign of trouble arising between Great Britain and her North American Colonies, Spain determined to profit by the fact that England's hands were already fully engaged with the prevailing strife, and conceived that at last a favourable

opportunity to recover Gibraltar had arrived. As a significant preliminary, in 1774 orders were issued throughout Spanish military colleges to cease all studies other than those which had reference to attacks by sea and land upon fortified places. At the same time preparations on a gigantic scale were made for an assault upon the much-coveted Rock.

The thundercloud which had been long lowering burst upon Gibraltar on July 11, 1779, when the siege began, which lasted three years seven months and twelve days, ending on March 12, 1783. The Great Siege of Gibraltar is one of the most memorable known in history. And, moreover, it proved the highly important point that, properly garrisoned and victualled, the Rock may claim to be invulnerable! Rather more than 5000 British troops, including 1100 Hanoverians, under the command of General Sir George Augustus Eliott, formed the garrison at the time, and five vessels under Admiral Duff represented the fleet. To the tireless watchfulness, cool courage, and tenacity of Eliott, and the valour and endurance of his men, Great Britain owes the retention of one of the finest strategical positions in the world. Never have men better earned the epithet of heroes than the war-worn defenders of the Rock during those three years of immortal combat. In July, 1782, the Spaniards were reinforced by their French allies. The investing army now consisted of 28,332 Spaniards under the command of Don Martin Alvarez de Sotomayer, and 33,038

French under Baron Frankenstein, the whole force being under the command of the Duc de Crillon. A magnificent battle-host of 61,370, pitted against which the English garrison was by comparison a mere handful of men!

During the long blockade the defenders suffered the most terrible privations, and were more than once reduced to the verge of starvation. Provisions rose to famine prices, and wild roots and weeds were dug up and eagerly devoured for food. Their number was diminished by famine and disease. Their wives and little children were dying of hunger, and they were helpless to prevent their sufferings. Yet the courage of the garrison never faltered in all those terrible months, and no thought of surrender was in their minds. Cut off from all land communication, provisions could only reach them by sea, and twice the garrison was temporarily relieved by the bravery of our Navy when in the last extremity for want of food—in January, 1780, by the gallant Rodney, and again in April, 1781, by Admiral Darby.

To show what deeds our soldiers and sailors are capable of, the five little vessels which formed the Gibraltar fleet, acting under Admiral Duff's orders in June, 1780, succeeded in driving off and destroying nine of the enemy's fire-ships—a daring action which infuriated our foes. From this time their gunboats kept up a regular bombardment, until by degrees the little town was reduced to ruins, nearly every

building being levelled by their terrific fire. Admiral Darby's success in bringing fresh supplies to the starving garrison made the besiegers yet more furious in their attack, and for six memorable weeks a desperate bombardment was kept up ; but, incredulous as it may seem, the British loss was only seventy men. In the late autumn of that year, the little garrison covered itself with glory, and completely turned the tables on the discomfited enemy. On November 27th, the besiegers being lulled into a blissful confidence that the game was in their own hands, the British soldiers performed an astonishing feat. Weak and sickly as they were from the long strain and privation, the little garrison, by this time reduced to 2000 men, made a brilliant and daring sortie on the enemy's trenches and batteries, and completely destroyed them. The attack was planned with the greatest ingenuity, and executed with such irresistible ardour that the enemy fled in breathless bewilderment, leaving their formidable entrenchments to the brave fellows who had taken them so completely unawares. "Never," says Gilbard, "was success more complete. The pioneers and artillerymen speedily levelled and destroyed the stupendous parapets ; the gabions and platforms were kindled, and the fire spread with such rapidity that in half an hour all the lines of approach, communication, and traverses were in flames and soon reduced to ashes. The mortars and cannon were spiked, and

nearly all the magazines exploded."* The loss to the besiegers was immense, but the work of reconstruction began without delay, an attempt spoiled again and again by the red-hot shot fired from the British batteries. The monotonous siege dragged wearily on, and at last the Spaniards, finding the blockade useless, determined on a mighty scheme of attack by land and sea, with the aid of huge floating batteries.

A thousand pieces of artillery were brought to bear on Gibraltar, and in addition fifty ships of the line, with a large number of gunboats and the ten "wondrous leather-roofed floating batteries," deemed to be incombustible and waterproof, and introduced as part of the plan devised by the ingenious brain of the Chevalier D'Arçon, and costing half a million sterling, aided by 40,000 troops, opened a murderous fire on the stubborn fortress. For weeks 6000 shells were thrown daily into the town. But the military skill, hardihood, and resource of the brave Scotchman in command of the fortress were inexhaustible, and his dauntless courage and resolution were an inspiration to every man in the barracks. As a set-off against the enemy's shells, the garrison had tunnelled under the rock to make those marvellous galleries armed with heavy guns, which at the time excited the admiration of the world. The besiegers made their grand attack on September 13th. "A great siege," says Fitchett,

* "History of Gibraltar" (Gilbard).

"tests the fighting quality of any army as nothing else can test it." No beleaguered garrison of men ever stood a severer test and came out of it with greater lustre than the men under Eliott, doggedly toiling at the batteries and defending their citadel against that tremendous assault with no loosening of discipline in the fiery fray.

"Was ever a battle like this in the world before?" For hours it raged, and the fate of the Rock hung in the balance. The defenders received the attacks with a storm of red-hot shot; the burning shower rained on steadily, and towards midnight its deadly effects were seen. The enemy had suffered an overwhelming defeat. Nine out of the ten floating batteries were in flames, their ships were in hopeless confusion, many were completely destroyed, and the historic siege was practically over, though the bombardment only actually ceased in March, 1783.

The fight over, "there came the crowning act of Eliott and the victorious defenders," writes Mr. Temple. "Sallying forth in boats, they picked up hundreds of their drowning enemies, and, bringing them into the citadel, treated them with every kindness. . . . Such acts as these deserve to be written in letters of gold!" * The gallant Eliott, afterwards created Lord Heathfield, was rewarded by a pension of £1500 a year, the Order of the Bath was bestowed on him, and he received the thanks of his country. In this famous

* "The Making of the Empire."

siege, the final scene of which was witnessed by the Comte d'Artois, afterwards Charles X. of France, the British lost 1231 men by all causes, and the Spaniards over 6000. Shortly after this attack the garrison received reinforcements and provisions, brought to them by the British fleet under Lord Howe.

When peace was concluded, a proposal of France to give up to Great Britain the West Indian islands of Martinique and Guadeloupe, receiving San Domingo from Spain, if Gibraltar were ceded to the latter, was entertained by the British Ministry, but happily rejected by Parliament, supported almost universally by public opinion, which had been thoroughly aroused by the gallantry of the defence, and which would not listen to any proposals for its surrender. Since this memorable siege no actual attempt has been made by the enemies of Britannia to forcibly wrest this valuable jewel from her Crown, where may it long shine in brilliancy and splendour. Weak-kneed politicians and "little Englanders" have, however, not been lacking, who from time to time have expressed their readiness to yield what the combined efforts of France and Spain have failed to force Britain to surrender. Early in 1801 rumours reached England that the Spaniards and French were secretly preparing to surprise and capture Gibraltar with a large force collected in the neighbourhood, ostensibly for an attack on Ceuta. In July, however, Sir James

Saumarez defeated the Spanish ships in a night attack off Cadiz, and Gibraltar remained unmolested.

In the fifties and sixties of the nineteenth century, there was a small political party which advocated the restoration of Gibraltar to Spain ; there were others who professed to believe that Ceuta, on the African coast, would be a more advantageous position for Great Britain, and that efforts should be made to exchange it with Spain for Gibraltar. These opinions are now held by few, and as Great Britain is laying out at Gibraltar some three millions of money in defences and docks, it is not likely that the British people will in any numbers resort to these fallacious ideas. But memory is short, and some readers may be unacquainted with the reasons why the possession of this fortress is of such paramount importance to our country. The following extract should enlighten them. It is quoted from the preface to Mr. Sayer's "History of Gibraltar," a book they would do well to read, and in which that writer very clearly and succinctly gives the arguments for and against its retention. These arguments have greatly gained in force since 1862, because Gibraltar has become of much greater use to the Navy as well as to commerce than it was at that date, owing to the cutting of the Suez Canal (thus opening a short route to India), to increased coaling facilities, to the formation of an enclosed and fortified harbour and dockyard, and to the creation of three of the largest docks in the world.

Mr. Sayer writes, "Almost simultaneously with the publication of the first edition [of his work], and perhaps in some degree in consequence of opinions which I had myself advanced, the old question was revived, 'Shall we surrender Gibraltar?'

"To the majority the proposition appeared a mischievous absurdity, but there were not a few who boldly maintained that the fortress was a useless encumbrance, involving a vast outlay of money, and offering no equivalent advantage to the State, upon which it was a burden. First, they say, the occupation of Gibraltar is offensive to Spain, and that a completely cordial alliance with that country is impossible so long as we retain it; secondly, that the fortress is no longer the Key of the Mediterranean; and that Malta affords all the protection our fleets and interests require in that sea; and thirdly, that by retaining it we prevent Spain from granting us commercial concessions which would be of greater value to England than the mere possession of Gibraltar. Of these objections the first appears to me to be the weakest.

"At the conclusion of successful wars, all the great Powers of Europe have, at one time or another, annexed or confiscated portions of the enemy's possessions, either as an indemnity for the expenditure incurred by the country, or in order to secure positions which were essential to the naval or military supremacy of the nation.

“The loss of territory is, no doubt, a natural cause of humiliation, and consequently of discontent, to the people who have to submit to it. But the code of European political morality has not yet reached such perfection that the feelings, pride, or sympathies of nations are taken into consideration when treaties are dictated by successful Powers; and it is simply absurd to suggest that England should be called upon to surrender one of her most important dependencies, which she holds by right of conquest and by cession, because the occupation of it is supposed to be a source of offence to the nation from which it was taken, and against whom it has been held through three memorable sieges.

“Moreover, upon this point Spain sets us a poor example. Ceuta and Melilla form part of the territory of Morocco, just as Gibraltar is part of Spain. The Moors are a proud and sensitive people, abhorring the sight of foreigners, who profess a religion hateful to them, in possession of part of their coasts. Yet Spain not only occupies three different military positions in Morocco, but she makes use of them for the purpose of aggression. No doubt some political economists will tell us that the Moors are a barbarian race, and that their national feelings are unworthy of consideration. Indeed, Mr. Goldwin Smith, while deprecating the occupation of Gibraltar, suggests that we might effect an exchange with Spain, and take possession of Ceuta. Thus, to keep what we

won from a nation in fair fight is a crime—to rob a barbarian with whom we are at peace, a merit.

“The second objection, that the fortress is no longer the key of the Mediterranean, and that Malta affords all the protection our fleets require in that sea, is open to argument, and therefore becomes a subject of itself, far beyond the limits of a preface; not that it is difficult to prove that since the introduction of steam, Gibraltar is of far greater importance to us than ever. It commands (not in the limited sense of a line of fire) the navigation of the narrow passage into the inland sea, and, with the exception of Algeciras, it is the only safe harbour from the Atlantic to Europa Point.

“As a coaling-station alone, therefore, it is invaluable, and were every gun devoted to the defence of the place as a coaling-harbour in time of war, our expenditure would be justified.

“In these days of steam fleets, a squadron sailing from Plymouth to the Mediterranean at full speed could not pass the Straits without a fresh supply of coal. In the event, therefore, of necessity, where could we supply the fleet with the means of entering the Mediterranean and engaging the enemy?

“During the Crimean War the value of the place to a maritime Power was forcibly proved. Without Gibraltar the vast transport service of England must have broken down, for it was here that her hundreds of steamers, passing and repassing without intercession,

were supplied with fuel with the utmost expedition, were repaired if damaged, and victualled if in want of provisions.

“When we surrender Gibraltar, depend upon it we shall resign our supremacy in the Mediterranean. It is the lock of the entrance into a vast harbour ; cede it, and we become subservient to the nation which holds the key.

“Malta is a formidable fortress, but, isolated in time of war, its position would be precarious. Gibraltar, on the contrary, is of independent value, and were Malta taken from us to-morrow, the importance of the Rock as a naval and military post would not be affected.

“Nor, indeed, does it appear clear that the most liberal commercial treaties with Spain would be equivalent to even the partial surrender of our influence and prestige in the South, or for the loss of a position so admirably adapted to the protection of our trade with the many countries beyond or on the borders of the Mediterranean.” * Mr. Sayer concludes by quoting from an article in the *Westminster Review*. He says, “Agreeing, as I do, with the *Westminster Reviewer*, I cannot do better than conclude in his words:—

“‘We hold Gibraltar by right of conquest, the right which secures to our country a vast majority of her possessions, scattered as they are all over the world ; and, moreover, a right which, in the present condition

* “History of Gibraltar” (Sayer).

of mankind, it would be neither wise nor safe to abandon. The possessor of Gibraltar must be the guardian of the Mediterranean; and Great Britain would indeed be unmindful of her duty to herself and to Europe were she to give up so important a station.’”

Not less convincing is the following article, which appeared in the *Morning Post* of June 24th, 1899, under the heading of “Gibraltar as a Naval Base.” The writer states the position so forcibly that the necessity for the important works now (1901) in progress at Gibraltar will be seen at once. He says—

“Every one talked for years of the importance of a serious naval establishment at Gibraltar. Every one made fun of the slender facilities that were given by the so-called dockyard, which was nothing more than a place where certain stores could be procured. Yet there was always the overwhelming fear of Algeciras across the Bay. If the Spaniards erected batteries within their own territory, what an unpleasant place Gibraltar might be for British warships! Of course, this was quite true—a war with Spain being pre-supposed—but the British have taken their fate in their hands, being forced thereto, and not doing it of free choice, and have resolved to spend large sums on making Gibraltar an efficient naval base.

“Disregard for a moment the question of any hostile action on the part of Spain, and you are confronted by the fact that the Mediterranean Fleet is being

increased, that the resources of Malta are already too exiguous for its requirements in time of peace, and that even when the new dock is completed present needs will not be met. Writing as a man who knows well every inch of Malta, who has walked over it, and sailed into all its creeks and bays, I find it difficult to see how anything more is to be done. Perhaps some use might be made of the harbour of Marsa Sirocco for small craft, provided always that the necessary dredging were undertaken, but the result would be unsatisfactory in more ways than one. In fact, Malta is incapable of dealing with the Mediterranean Fleet as it is. There are constant delays. What would happen in time of war, when, after an action, a number of ships required refitting? What would happen if the Mediterranean Fleet were reinforced by the Channel Fleet? "We should work through somehow," say men who have a sublime faith in their country's luck and resources, but a nation cannot afford to rely on such a vague hypothesis. Of course, the ideal position would be to own Mitylene in the Eastern Mediterranean, and to make a great dockyard there, as well as possessing Gibraltar or, preferably, other places to the westward. But, unhappily, these are not British possessions. The insufficiency of Malta renders another Mediterranean dockyard an absolute necessity, and consequently the best must be made of Gibraltar.

“Naval men knew this of old, but it took a long time for the country to recognise it, and still longer for the Admiralty to act on it. Only in 1896 was passed a Naval Works Act which provided for the proper development of the place. There was to be an extension of the New Mole; beyond that a Detached Mole which should be *en rapport*, as it were, with a Commercial Mole running out from the Old Mole on the northern side abutting on the Neutral Ground. The old dockyard is thus practically obsolete. Its site is to be occupied by three new docks—one having a length of 300 ft., another a length of 500 ft., and a third a length of 700 ft. To the northward, on reclaimed land, are to be workshops and all the necessities for the execution of every sort of repair to warships. To the northward, again, is to be a torpedo-boat harbour extending to the Ragged Staff. The length of British territory at Gibraltar from the Neutral Ground to the extremity of the Peninsula is about 4700 yards, or roughly two miles and a furlong. Starting from the south, and looking northward, the whole of the right hand, or eastern side, of the Rock is useless for harbour-making purposes. The western side is on Algeciras Bay, and the New Mole starts about 2000 yards from the extreme southern point, trending to the westward at an angle of about 35° or 40° to the line of the length of the Peninsula. Its length is 1400 yards. Then comes a gap; then the Detached Mole running

in a much more northerly direction ; then another gap—the Detached Mole and the two gaps being opposite the town. To the northward comes the main line of the Commercial Mole and the cross-piece at its extremity. A vast expanse of water is thus in process of being enclosed ; and while there will be a gap through the New Mole close to the entrances to the docks, the real mouths of the enclosed space will be on each side of the Detached Mole. It will be easy to protect these mouths from torpedo-boat attack by means of booms.

“ The works are colossal in character. The extension of the New Mole is practically complete ; the Commercial Mole has made considerable progress ; and the Detached Mole is well under way. Messrs. Topham, Jones, and Railton, the contractors, have bought the Admiralty plant on the spot, including tugs, dredgers, and machinery, and the material required for construction will be sent in regular monthly instalments during the next three years. The freight contract has been taken by a Liverpool firm. Of the progress made a measure is afforded by the announcement in the *London Gazette* that the 1st of next month * has been fixed as the date from which the control of the Admiralty waters at Gibraltar shall be vested in the Senior Naval Officer. The works are being executed by Spaniards under British direction.

* July, 1899.

“The creation of this dockyard and harbour is urgently required, for the simple reason that Great Britain does not own any better place for a naval port and its accessories. It would be idle to pretend, however, that the new establishment will be in any way secure from hostile attack. The necessity for it is demonstrated by the insufficiency of the resources of Malta, and perhaps even more by the action of France in regard to Rachgoun and Sfax, as well as Biserta. The fortification of Biserta, the conversion of the place into a naval port, must be reckoned with as a danger on the British flank in the Mediterranean. So, too, must the less-known ports of Rachgoun and Sfax. Both are in Northern Africa. Rachgoun lies at the mouth of the Tafna, about 50 miles south-west of Oran and 175 or 180 miles east-south-east of Gibraltar—well within the range of torpedo-boat action. Sfax, on the other hand, threatens Malta. It is to the northward of the Gulf of Gabes, and is partly protected by Kerkenna Island to the eastward. Only some 200 miles west-south-west of Malta, it brings that important naval station within the sphere of torpedo-boat operations.

“With these possibilities of flank attack from the only Power that can at present approach her in naval strength, Great Britain must ask whether or not the new harbour and dockyard at Gibraltar will be secure from attack except by sea. Certainly

they will not if ever any trouble arises with Spain or with any Power which can coerce Spain, or which takes a vigorous initiative and seizes San Roque and the Algeciras side of the Bay. It is hardly to be doubted that during the recent Hispano-American War the works the Spaniards erected at or near Algeciras were the subject of remonstrance. Isla Verde, in front of Algeciras, is something less than four miles from the older portion of the New Mole. To the south of Algeciras a large portion of the shore is within five miles of the New Mole. The distance, therefore, which will separate both these places from the new dockyard, or from ships lying alongside the jetties supplied by the Moles themselves, will be even less. The whole of the new harbour of Gibraltar will be well within the range of batteries on Spanish soil; and British batteries in replying would have to start with an additional thousand yards. Moreover, the Spanish batteries would be content to take their pounding for some little time and to devote their attention to the destruction of the dockyard and of the presumably damaged ships lying alongside the jetties and waiting for repairs. On this point no illusions need be entertained. Some few years ago the *Correspondencia de Espana* had an article that should have opened British eyes. It contended that while Isla Verde and Punta Carnero would command the entrance to the Bay, batteries on the lower slopes

of the Sierra Carbonera—which lies inland from Gibraltar—and at Punta Mala would enfilade the most powerful batteries of the Rock. It urged, too, that these Spanish guns should be placed in position. Things have changed since then. The position of many guns at Gibraltar has been altered, and others have been mounted. The danger still exists, however, and it is accentuated by the increased importance Gibraltar will acquire when the new works are completed. With the proposed Spanish batteries in the hands of a strong Power, Great Britain would be in an awkward position. The only way out of the difficulty is to induce Spain to accept a new frontier line—for a consideration, of course—and to agree not only to cede the lower slopes of the Sierra Carbonera, but to accept the ridge, at any rate, as the future boundary. If this scheme could once be brought into the region of practical diplomatic discussion, a frontier could soon be delimited that would give all the security Great Britain needs. But it would necessitate a much larger garrison than is kept at Gibraltar at present."

This, however, is a question awaiting further development. Meanwhile, extensions and alterations are continually being carried out in the defensive system, and in some respects the fortifications of this renowned headland are unique. Certainly the legacy bequeathed from the Great Siege—that remarkable series of fortified galleries begun by Eliott's garrison

—defies all comparison. Hewn out of the solid rock, the tiers run towards the north and north-east at varying lengths of from two to three miles, and sufficiently wide to allow a carriage to pass. St. George's Hall, the scene of many a brilliant *fête* in the past, is hollowed out at the end of the upper gallery. It is a roomy chamber fifty feet long by thirty-five feet wide. At regular intervals of every dozen yards along the galleries portholes have been cut, and from each there peers forth the iron muzzle of a formidable gun. Nearly the whole Rock bristles with artillery. Cannon occupy every available ledge and nook, oftentimes screened by bright-flowering plants. Terrible would be the utterance if the great Rock "spoke from all its thousand iron mouths in anger and defiance." Happily its "warlike accents" have not been heard for many a long day, except in friendly salute or to pay high compliment to some distinguished personage.

A curiously mixed population inhabits Gibraltar. English, Spaniards, Italians, Portuguese, Jews, Moors, and representatives of every nationality trading in the Mediterranean have made it their home. The majority of the people are Roman Catholics, but, needless to add, there is full religious liberty. In 1843 the Church of the Holy Trinity was made a cathedral and bishop's see of the Church of England. Although one of the most densely inhabited places on the face of the globe, Gibraltar is healthy; nor

does it deserve the unfavourable things that have sometimes been said. Bare as its aspect is from the sea, those who know the Rock well render full justice to the beauty and luxuriance of its gardens and its wealth of vegetation. Situated in the sub-tropical zone, it has dry summers and a rainy season in winter, but, except for the levanters, or easterly winds period, the climate is fairly pleasant and the sky radiantly clear. The heat in summer is great, but at times tempered by the sea-breeze. In the early part of the nineteenth century Gibraltar earned a reputation for insalubrity. Badly drained, and with a wretched water-supply, the only cause for wonder is that the mortality was not greater. Time after time malignant epidemics committed frightful ravages, until Gibraltar came to be regarded as a fever-stricken, plague-haunted spot. At last, in 1865, a sanitary commission was instituted. Since then a marvellous improvement has taken place. The management of the drainage and water-supply is in the hands of authorised Sanitary commissioners, and by vigorous and well-directed efforts health has been promoted, and the old taint of insalubrity no longer exists. A new and complete system of drainage has recently been carried out. *Sanitas sanitatum, omnia sanitas*. Healthy and prosperous, with a revenue exceeding its expenditure and a growing trade, the old complaint that Gibraltar was a mismanaged and expensive colony has long since died out. Its people

recognise and practise the simple virtues of thrift and industry, and the Government Savings Bank, founded in 1882, had 3879 depositors on December 31st, 1898, whose savings amounted to a substantial total of £152,262. Close intercourse is maintained with England by submarine cable and by frequent mail steamers, as well as by way of Spain and France, and telegraphic lines and cables connect Gibraltar with the Spanish and other Mediterranean ports. During the winter months the magnificent Hamburg-American line of mail steamers make Gibraltar a port of call on their weekly voyages to and from New York and Genoa.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

The revenue of Gibraltar in 1889 was 1,591,853 pesetas.*				
„	„	1898	„	1,624,551 „
The expenditure „ 1889 „ 1,439,872 „				
„	„	1898	„	1,417,462 „

* 1 pesetas = 9½*d.*

CHAPTER XI.

LEADING DATES.

- B.C. 1519 (about). Phœnician colonisation.
700 (about). Greek conquest.
480 (about). Conquered by Carthaginians.
259. Conquered by the Romans.
216. Annexed to the Roman Empire.
A.D. 62. St. Paul shipwrecked off its coast.
395. It is made part of the Eastern Empire.
400-500 (between). Falls successively into the hands of the Vandals and Goths.
533. Captured by Belisarius.
534. Taken by Vandals.
870. Seized by Saracens (Arabs).
1090. Conquered by Roger of Normandy, and annexed to Sicily.
1282. Conquered by Pedro of Aragon.
1530. The Emperor, Charles V., gives Malta to the Knights of St. John.
1551. Gallant defence against the Turks.
1557. Valetta founded by La Valetta.
1565. Besieged by the Sultan Solyman—heroic resistance.
1697. Cathedral of St. Paul (Citta Vecchia) founded.
1769. University founded.
1798. The Knights surrender to Napoleon.
1800. Malta places itself under British protection.
1814. Malta confirmed as a British possession by Treaty of Paris.
1846. Protestant College founded.
1849. Constitution granted.
1878. Indian troops brought to Malta.
1887. Constitution extended.

“O'er the glad waters of the dark blue sea,
Our thoughts as boundless, and our souls as free,
Far as the breeze can bear, the billows foam,
Survey our Empire.”

BYRON.

CHAPTER XI.

MALTA.

SECOND only to Gibraltar in importance is the strong position that we hold in the island of Malta, mere speck though it seems on the map. For, whilst Gibraltar guards the mouth of the Mediterranean, Malta—the “little military hothouse,” as Byron called it, on account of its extraordinary fortifications—keeps no less vigilant watch in the middle of the great historic battle-sea of Europe, and is another important link in the defensive chain which binds Great Britain to her Eastern possessions.

The little Maltese islands are situated about fifty-eight miles south of the Sicilian coast, eighty miles from Syracuse, and about one hundred and eighty miles from Cape Bon, on the mainland of Africa. They include Malta and its two tiny dependencies, Gozo and Comino, and the yet tinier islets of Filfla and Cominotto. Malta itself, the Melita of antiquity, is about seventeen miles in length and nine miles in breadth, with a total area of less than ninety-two square miles ; Gozo is under twenty-five square

miles, and Comino is about one square mile in size. The whole group might be comfortably spread out in the Isle of Man, and yet leave half the area of the little northern island uncovered. But the returns of the last census, taken in, 1891, showed that no fewer than 177,457 people were packed in these narrow bounds, including troops forming the garrison, the men of the Royal Navy, and the sailors of the merchant shipping. These are very large figures in proportion to the small area, and Maltese soil is more densely populated than any other spot in Europe, outside of the big cities. The climate is fairly healthy, and the winter months are delightful. August is the hottest month, and then the heat during the daytime is almost tropical, though the nights are cool and pleasant, except when the baneful "sirocco" suddenly blows from the south, and fills the heated air with suffocating dust. But worse than the hot moisture of the sirocco wind laden with salt sea-mists is "a tempestuous wind," as St. Paul describes it, "called Euroclydon," which often succeeds a spell of the south wind, and, blowing from the east-north-east, roars with the same sudden and awful fury as when the Apostle suffered shipwreck off the coast, well-nigh two thousand years ago, and met with "no little kindness" at the hands of "the barbarous people." During these terrific gales the sea rises to a tremendous height, and it is dangerous to cross the harbour.

Valetta, the principal port and capital, is situated in 35° 54' north latitude and 31° 14' east longitude.

Several other fine harbours are formed by the much-broken shores of the island on the north-eastern and eastern side ; the harbours of Marsa Sirocco, St. Paul's Bay, and Melliha Bay are three of the most important. There can be little doubt that at one time the Maltese group was connected with the continent of Europe. But the sea, with its strange, swift-changing, tireless washings, has long ago sunk all signs of the isthmus which joined them to the mainland. Malta stands on the same submarine plateau as its northern neighbour Sicily—a plateau stretching across to Africa, and forming the two basins of the Mediterranean. The depth of water between Malta and the Sicilian coast is not above eighty fathoms, whilst fifty miles eastwards the soundings show an enormous depth of fifteen hundred fathoms. Even now that steady action of tide and current is at work fretting away the limestone cliffs, tunnelling into their sides and hollowing out great caverns and grottoes in all directions. Along the whole of the north-eastern and eastern sides the coast-line is curiously broken and rugged, and strongly marked by indentations and bays. It is on the principal of these that the magnificent town of Valetta and its massive fortifications are built.

Situated within convenient reach of the three continents, and in the direct track of the huge traffic passing through the Suez Canal, Malta, with its splendid harbours, is the principal naval station in the Mediterranean. It is a port of call for all the



GRAND HARBOUR, VALETTA.

Photo by Frith & Co.



great Eastern liners, and the home for some months every year of the Mediterranean fleet. The beautiful double harbour of Valetta is at once one of the finest ports and most powerful strongholds in the world. The strategic and commercial value of Malta to the Empire has led to extensive fortifications being erected, and it has been made a first-class coaling-station and dockyard. It is the headquarters of the British Mediterranean Squadron, where vessels can refit, be repaired, victualled and coaled, and it contains a garrison, in the centre of the Mediterranean, capable of being sent at a short notice to any point in Southern Europe where danger may threaten. Of late years considerable additions have been made, and are being made, to the naval resources of the dockyard, and the strength of the fortifications has been greatly increased. There are at present three large docks capable of holding modern war-vessels; there is also ample hospital accommodation for both army and navy. But more will be said about these later on; only it is well to remember that one thing is quite certain—without Malta and Gibraltar it would be impossible, in time of war, for the British Fleet to remain in the Mediterranean, and under those circumstances Egypt would be practically locked against us, and the shortest route to India would be closed to us. But with these two highly important fortresses in our hands, our fleet can keep the sea, and make Great Britain supreme in the Mediterranean. And so long as British influence is

predominant to foster and protect its navigation, the beautiful waters of the Mediterranean will fulfil its ancient *rôle*, and serve as "the marriage-ring of nations."

We owe the possession of Malta, the second key—the Egyptian key, we may call it—to the Mediterranean, to the restless ambition of Napoleon Bonaparte. After the victorious campaign in Italy, which ended in the Treaty of Campo Formio, Napoleon began to entertain dazzling dreams of universal conquest. Thwarted and opposed by England at sea, with characteristic confidence in his own star, he resolved on the destruction of British power and British trade in the East by joining hands with our enemy, Tippoo Sahib, and overthrowing England in far-off India. With swift calculation, his imagination seized on Egypt as necessary to his project. "Napoleon's design," Junot, his aide-de-camp wrote, after the dream was shattered, "was to have made Egypt the point from which the thunderbolt was to issue which was to overwhelm the British Empire." His plans for the Egyptian expedition were made with the utmost secrecy. On May 19, 1798, a great war-fleet and a swarm of transports, conveying an army of 36,000 men—572 vessels in all—swept out of Toulon harbour and slipped through the Mediterranean, evading the watchful eyes of the English fleet under Nelson. Napoleon's intention was to conquer India through Egypt. So important an outpost as Malta

was not likely to be overlooked by the subtle brain of the would-be conqueror. In passing Malta, Napoleon summoned the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, the rulers of the island, to surrender. The logic of such a summons, backed by the presence of a powerful fleet and 36,000 veteran troops, was irresistible, and Napoleon had the satisfaction of getting what he asked without trouble. The Knights surrendered in the most ignominious manner, without striking a blow in their own defence. On July 12, 1798, the Grand Master Hompesch capitulated to Napoleon, who promptly dispersed the Order, after the island had been held by the Knights Hospitallers for 246 years.

The new rulers thrust upon the Maltese proved anything but welcome. It was one thing for the Hospitallers to be won over by the magnetic reasoning of Napoleon's Egyptian army, but it was by no means so easy to compel the brave Maltese to submit quietly to the harsh and rigorous *régime* of their French masters. Within a few months the little island was in revolt, and with the assistance of the British Navy and a Neapolitan force, France was cheated of her prize. The French were driven to take refuge in the garrison towns, and here they were closely besieged for two years, during which time the Maltese themselves lost 20,000 men. The advantage, however, from first to last lay with the islanders, who knew the resources of their country, and by their own invitation had the British Fleet at their back. Then,

again, Nelson's dazzling victory at Aboukir Bay in 1798, when he destroyed the French Mediterranean fleet, had removed all possibility of succour, and the beleaguered French garrison was completely isolated. Its lines of communication were cut off, and neither supplies nor reinforcements could reach it from France. At last, when reduced to dire extremities, the French garrison surrendered, and the government of Malta was handed over to Great Britain in 1800, the Maltese voluntarily placing themselves under our protection. By the terms of the Treaty of Amiens, signed in 1802, Great Britain agreed to evacuate Malta within three months. The Maltese protested very strongly against this arrangement, and, as elaborate war preparations went on under a very thin disguise during the so-called peace, Great Britain declined to give up the island, since its abandonment would mean, in other words, our abandonment of the Mediterranean at a critical time when, as Professor Seeley points out, England had reasonable ground to suppose that Napoleon would very soon reoccupy Egypt, and renew his attempts upon India. Napoleon was very wrathful at this refusal to give up the little island and its fortresses, and our retention of the "miserable rock," as he angrily declared Malta to be, was made one of the grounds for the resumption of hostilities between the two countries—France and England.

Eventually, at the close of the war, the possession of the island was confirmed by Europe to Great

Britain through the Treaty of Paris in 1814. Under the terms of the Treaty "the island of Malta and its dependencies were declared to belong in full right and sovereignty to his Britannic Majesty," and Malta has remained ever since one of the most important outworks of the British Empire. But the value of Malta as a guardian of our sea-borne commerce and the supreme usefulness of its harbours by no means exhausts the measure of its commercial importance. The busy port of Valetta serves as an *entrepôt* for gathering and distributing goods from the neighbouring countries, and it has a large transit trade, amounting to twenty-three millions sterling, in addition to its exports.

The Maltese are devout Roman Catholics, and they are loyal and devoted subjects of the Empire. They maintain two infantry regiments of 1000 men each, besides a local artillery corps. On more than one occasion, and recently in the South African campaign, they have given substantial proof of their loyalty by offering Great Britain military assistance towards the general defence of the Empire ; an offer which was partly accepted, for when British regular troops were withdrawn from Egypt for service in South Africa, a body of Maltese artillery assisted to replace them.

Perhaps the nationality of the inhabitants may best be described by saying that every race which has in turn held mastery over the much-coveted isle has left

its traces. More than a thousand years before Christ—some writers say as early as 1519 B.C.—the Phœnicians colonised the island, and Malta and Gozo became prosperous communities. After this, the same dazzling story may be told of the famous little islands that is told of their larger, and more important, neighbours settled round the great trading sea of antiquity. Every great race of olden times, as its commercial instincts quickened, fought by turn for their possession, jealous to secure for itself the principal key to the East. Some writers identify the rocky stronghold with the *Hyperion* or *Ogygia* of Homer, the island where Ulysses found an asylum. The name Melita was bestowed by the Greeks when they drove out the Phœnicians from Malta, about the year 700 B.C. When this happened, Melita, or Malta, as we know it, had developed a rich and thriving trade, and was a possession well worth having. The Carthaginians in their turn, about 480 B.C., set forth on a career of extensive conquest; they despoiled the Greeks of Malta, and made the most of the fertile isle whilst it remained in their hands. In the first Punic war Malta, prosperous and wealthy, was stripped and plundered by Rome, the mistress of the world; but though conquered in 259 B.C., it was not annexed to the powerful Roman Empire until the year 216 B.C. It was then a famous and flourishing colony. Its cotton, the fragrance of its roses, the delicacy of its honey, were unrivalled in Eastern markets. The Latin poet

Ovid praises its fertility. Cicero makes mention of the cushions stuffed with its rose-leaves used by the magnificent Verres. On the break-up of the Roman power in the fifth century the Vandals and Goths in succession became the masters of Malta. In 533 Belisarius captured the island, and restored it to the Byzantine Empire. But the glory, the prosperity, and civilisation of Malta had vanished, and a period of decadence set in.

The next conquerors were the Saracens, who took the island in 870. Two hundred and twenty years later the Norman Count, Roger of Sicily, drove out the Saracens, and as an appanage of Sicily, Malta passed in 1194 to the Emperor Henry VI. It next fell by conquest into the hands of Pedro of Aragon in 1282, and through him it ultimately passed to the Emperor Charles V. of Spain. In 1530 the Emperor Charles, with princely generosity, gave the island of Malta and the island of Gozo, together "a noble and free fief," to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, to be held by them in perpetual sovereignty, on fee of a falcon being annually presented by the Knights. Amongst the changing figures that flit across the stage of Malta's eventful history, none are more picturesque than the Hospitallers, who now became its masters. The Knights of St. John, as a military brotherhood, were founded about 1099, and the order was confirmed by the Pope in 1113. The brotherhood was organised for the defence of the Holy Sepulchre

at Jerusalem, and its members were sworn to resist the advances of the Turks, who threatened to sweep through Eastern Europe. As the crusading zeal and fervour of Europe declined, the Knights retired before the advancing wave of Mohammedanism, first to Acre, which they defended most gallantly in 1290, then to Limassol, in Cyprus. In 1310, under De Vallaret, they took Rhodes. They were driven from Rhodes in 1522 by the Sultan Solyman, and had to retire to Candia, and later on to Sicily. They settled themselves eventually, by the favour of the Emperor Charles, as we have stated, in Malta. The natural strength of Malta, the immense fortifications that they reared, and a string of watch-towers all round the coast, enabled the Knights to establish themselves firmly, and for two hundred years they made their island the great stronghold of Christendom against the Moslems. Under a noble succession of twenty-eight Grand Masters, they followed the leading traditions of their Order, and waged a deadly war against the powerful pirates of the Mediterranean. They made two gallant stands against the Turks, who besieged them unsuccessfully in 1551, and again in 1565. The latter siege lasted three whole months. On this occasion the Sultan Solyman, with all the pomp and ceremony of those ancient days, sent a powerful fleet against them, armed to the teeth, and supplemented by the war-galleys of his fellow-pirate, Dragut of Tripoli ; but the Knights fought valiantly, and the besiegers were beaten off after losing 30,000 men.

The Knights raised those stupendous fortifications and defences which add so much to the picturesqueness, if not so much, in these modern days, to the natural strength of the position. The year after their splendid defence against Solyman's attack they strengthened the strong city of Valetta, named after La Valetta, the ruling Grand Master of the Order. It is built on a rocky peninsula which forms the two harbours of Valetta, and it is still famous for its architectural magnificence, sustaining the proud boast of its founders that it was built "by gentlemen for gentlemen." Even to-day much of the old picturesqueness remains. For if the Knights spent large sums of money over their fortifications, they spent other large sums in beautifying their island, building sumptuous houses, establishing hospitals, and making good roads and aqueducts.

One other splendid deed must be recorded to the merit of the Knights of St. John and their Maltese followers, and this was their courageous part at the battle of Lepanto in 1571, where they specially distinguished themselves.

The island of Malta remained under their rule until Napoleon appeared before its fortresses in June, 1798, when the Knights, ill sustaining their illustrious traditions, surrendered with ignoble facility. Two years later, as we have stated, the islands composing the group became part of the British Empire. Since Malta became a British possession, both the

island and its people have prospered, and its fortifications have been considerably extended and strengthened.

In 1849 Great Britain granted a constitution to Malta. A still more liberal one was accorded in 1887, and this was again amended in 1898. The government is nominally that of a Crown Colony. Malta, however, is primarily a fortress. It is a military stronghold, a naval base, a repairing and coaling station, and in all matters relating to Imperial defence, as is right, it is under the control of the British Governor; but it is a self-governing colony in all matters which do not appertain to Imperial defence.

In 1878, under the premiership of Lord Beaconsfield, when war with Russia appeared to be imminent, the British Government brought 6000 Indian troops to Malta. On two earlier occasions military forces from India had been sent to Egypt to assist the home troops against a European army, but never before had they been landed on European shores. This demonstration was intended, and was understood by foreign Powers, as an effective reminder that the forces of the Sovereign of Great Britain and Ireland and those of the Sovereign of India were one and indivisible, and that our military power in Europe is not restricted to those troops who speak the English language, and who garrison the narrow limits of the British Isles, but that we possess in all quarters of the world, and especially in India, a large reserve of

brave, loyal, and well-trained soldiery, which in time of need could be almost indefinitely augmented from amongst the 400,000,000 of people who belong to the British Empire.

Throughout the island there is neither lake, river, nor rivulet, but by the ingenuity and industry of men a plentiful supply of pure fresh water is distributed from house to house by means of the water-works now in existence. The reorganisation of the water-supply and the important sanitary improvements undertaken at the joint charge of the Colonial and Imperial Treasuries, both works of considerable magnitude, should, when finished, combine to make Malta one of the healthiest winter resorts on the Mediterranean.

The Maltese are passionately fond of their island home; they call it the "flower of the world," and in truth Malta is a lovely spot, well maintaining its ancient fame. Its fertility and productiveness are due in a very large measure to the industry and resourcefulness of the inhabitants themselves. Though the soil is good, there is very little of it. Cultivation—and the island is most highly cultivated—is the result of their unwearied labour and energy. Where Nature has been scanty in distributing, the Maltese have eked out the supply. Earth has been carried from Sicily, and by dint of magnificent energy two and even three crops are produced in the year, and the islanders have rich prizes to show as the

result of their efforts. Large crops of early potatoes and onions are raised, and find a ready sale in the English markets. Excellent wheat and other grain are grown. Delicious grapes, oranges, peaches, figs, melons, olives, and other fruits are shipped from its harbours. Olive-oil and cotton are other products. In the spring-time the isle is bright with flowers, and its honey is still famous. Horses, cattle, sheep, and goats are reared. A very large number of islanders find employment in the busy docks and harbours, especially in connection with the trade of Valetta. Evidence of the thrifty habits of the Maltese is proved by the fact that on December 31st, 1898, the Government Savings Bank (established in 1833) had £519,038 deposits.

A railway eight and a half miles long, now owned by the Government, connects Valetta with the older capital, Citta Vecchia, and there are about sixty-five miles of telegraph constructed and worked by the military authorities, open to the use of the public.* Valetta is provided with an elaborate telephone system, and it has direct cables to Gibraltar, Cape Bon (Tunis), Sicily, Alexandria, and Zante. Direct and regular mail communication is maintained with almost every Mediterranean port, and there is a daily service with England except on Sunday.

At Citta Vecchia, the old capital, a magnificent cathedral, founded in 1697, traditionally occupies the site of the house of Publius, who lodged St. Paul

* See Colonial Office List (1900).

and his shipwrecked companions, and the Bay of St. Paul is reputed to be the scene of the shipwreck.

Malta is first and foremost a fortress, an armed watch-tower "of almost unrivalled importance" on the grey-blue waters of the Mediterranean, but that it may fairly claim the blessings and victories won by the arts of peace is shown, not only by the sumptuous buildings raised by the Knights, but by the present prosperous condition of the island. A fine public library, a public lyceum with 422 scholars, a university founded in 1769, a Protestant College founded in 1846, and a very large number of private schools, bear eloquent testimony to the educational facilities of the island, whilst free elementary education—a matter of supreme importance in every country—is carried on almost exclusively in Government schools, which are Roman Catholic.

No direct taxation is imposed. The most important revenues are the custom duties, the port dues, and the land-tax. Out of this the sum of £5000 is annually contributed towards the Imperial defence already mentioned.

Of late the Maltese language question has attracted some public attention. In 1898 "Bills were introduced in Malta to remove the injustice of a British subject, unfamiliar with the Italian language, being tried by a court of justice in a British Colony in a language (Italian) which he could not understand, and which is not the native language of the country,

and to give a British subject facilities for the conduct of civil proceedings to which he is a party in the English language. These Bills being rejected by the Council of Government, an Order in Council was issued in March, containing provisions similar to those of the Bills; and notice was given by local proclamation of the intention of her late Majesty's Government that, after fifteen years, the English language should be substituted for the Italian in all legal proceedings." * A good deal of criticism was provoked by this announcement, and the result of a searching inquiry on the spot by Signor Ojetti, who was sent to Malta for the purpose by the *Corriere della Sera*, a leading Italian newspaper, shows distinctly that the alteration is a desirable one, both in the interests of the colony and the Empire. Signor Ojetti describes the Maltese vocabulary as "a language in which hardly twenty per cent. of the words have Italian roots, while the rest is a residuum of Phœnician and of corrupt Arabic."

MALTA.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

				£
The revenue of Malta in 1887	...	...	...	219,185
" " 1898	...	...	...	332,488
The expenditure in 1887	...	...	...	233,825
" 1898	...	...	...	339,082

* See Introduction, Colonial Office List (1900).

					£
The public debt in 1887	...	...	...	...	78,368
„ 1898	...	...	...	...	79,168
The imports from Great Britain in 1887	...	...	...	...	832,317
„ „ 1898	...	...	...	...	880,164
The exports to Great Britain in 1887	...	...	...	...	28,787
„ „ 1898	...	...	...	...	51,597

“The transit trade (of grain, alcohols, cattle, etc., not landed) amounts, in addition, to twenty-three millions sterling annually. There is also a large trade in non-dutiable goods. The total imports are probably about £2,500,000 annually, and the total exports about a quarter of a million.” *

* See Colonial Office List (1900).

CHAPTER XII.

LEADING DATES.

- B.C. 707. Assyrian Conquest.
550. Second Egyptian Conquest under Amasis.
525. Annexed to Persia by Cambyzes.
500-499. Revolt and subjection.
480. Xerxes defeated at Battle of Salamis (near Athens).
449. Persian fleet defeated near Salamis (in Cyprus).
333. Battle of Issus—power of Darius broken.
323. Death of Alexander.
295. Egyptian rule under Ptolemy.
58. Cyprus becomes a Roman province.
A.D. 45. Visited by St. Paul and Barnabas.
646-648. Seized by Saracens under Othman, and recovered by
Greeks.
802. Invaded by Saracens under Haroun al Raschid.
1184. Isaac Comnenus declares himself King of Cyprus.
1191. Richard I. takes Limassol, and occupies the island.
1191. His nuptials at Limassol with Berengaria of Navarre.
1192. Richard sells Cyprus to the Knights Templars.
1192. Presents Cyprus to Guy Lusignan.
1373-1464. Ruled by Genoese.
1464-1489. Ruled by Lusignans.
1489. Yielded by Queen Catarina Cornaro to Venice.
1489-1570. Governed by Republic of Venice.
1570-1571. Turkish invasion and conquest under Selim II.
1571-1878. Turkish rule.
1832-1840. Egyptian occupation interrupts Turkish rule in Cyprus.
1878 (June 4th). Anglo-Turkish Convention—Cyprus becomes a British
“place of arms.”

- 1878 (July). British occupation of Cyprus.
- 1878. Sir Garnet Wolseley High Commissioner.
- 1879. Sir Robert Biddulph succeeds Sir Garnet Wolseley.
- 1879. British authorities purchase all the Government lands.
- 1880. Government transferred to the Colonial Office.
- 1882. New Constitution granted.
- 1898. New Tariff Law. Taxation lightened.

“The time shall come, when, free as seas or wind,
Unbounded Thames shall flow for all mankind,
Whole nations enter with each swelling tide,
And seas but join the regions they divide ;
Earth's distant ends our glories shall behold,
And the new world launch forth to seek the old.”

POPE.

CHAPTER XII.

CYPRUS.

AND now an apology is necessary, since geographically, as we all know, Cyprus belongs to Asia and not to Europe, and, strictly speaking, a chapter on Cyprus should have no place in a volume entitled "Great Britain in Europe." On the other hand, the beautiful island, situated though it is off the Asiatic continent, viewed from a British standpoint, is first and foremost a Mediterranean outpost linked on to Malta and Gibraltar. In other words, it completes the trio of British dependencies which enable Great Britain to maintain supreme power in the great inland sea, and to keep a free route to Egypt and to India. It cannot, therefore, be separated without breaking the continuity. Unlike its war-crowned sisters, Gibraltar and Malta, Cyprus, which is far larger than either, came into our occupation without a shot being fired in anger or dispute. It was won in peaceful council at the now famous Congress of Berlin, the crystalline foresight of Lord Beaconsfield directing its conditional transference to Great Britain. For though Cyprus is administered by the British Government, it

still belongs to Turkey, and our occupation is nominally conditional, though the conditions which would lead to our evacuation of it are such as to render the probability unlikely.

By the terms of the Anglo-Turkish Convention of June 4th, 1878, the British Government entered into a treaty with the Sultan of Turkey, who agreed that Cyprus should be occupied by British troops, and be under our control, so long as Russia holds certain fortresses claimed by the Porte in Asia Minor. Now, Russia is not at all likely to relinquish these spoils, unless, indeed—another improbable contingency—they are wrested from her by force, so our control of Cyprus may, with good reason, be considered as permanent. Certainly the Cypriotes themselves would bitterly resent being handed over to the Ottoman Government.

Cyprus is the third largest of the Mediterranean islands, being exceeded in size only by Sicily and Sardinia. It is curiously varied in physical formation. The ancient Greeks, with their fanciful love of simile, likened its shape to that of a deer's skin spread out on the waters, the long Carpas peninsula forming the tail. The island is situated in the north-eastern corner of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, having Asia Minor to the north and Syria to the east, and it lies between $34^{\circ} 33'$ and $35^{\circ} 41'$ north latitude, and $32^{\circ} 20'$ and $34^{\circ} 35'$ east longitude. Under the British Government the island has been systematically

mapped out and surveyed, and its total area is given as 3584 square miles. Its greatest length from Cape St. Andrea on the east-north-east to Cape Drepano on the west-south-west is one hundred and forty miles, and its extreme breadth from Cape Kormakiti on the north to Cape Gata on the south is sixty miles. The climate varies greatly in different parts of the island ; but the old idea of its being a terrible one has been entirely dispelled. When the English troops first occupied Cyprus, in the hot autumn of 1878, they were unfortunately encamped in the most unhealthy situation. They had no proper shelter, food, or employment, and it was little wonder that sickness broke out and that many died. But under ordinary conditions for people living regular lives and taking reasonable care, Cyprus is a delightful place, and, to quote from the official report, "the island may be said to be in every way healthy." In the summer it is hot and exceedingly dry in the plains, moist and unpleasant on the seashore, but bracing and healthy on the inland hills. In the old neglected state of things the malarial scourge was prevalent in the coast localities and marshes, but it is now little known. The active measures taken by Government to improve the sanitary conditions of Cyprus, and the judicious planting of trees, have worked an extraordinary transformation in the health of the island, and this happy result is not the least important amongst the many benefits conferred by British rule.

If we turn to the map, we shall be able to form our own conclusions as to the commercial importance of Cyprus and its strategical value to the Empire. For, as most of us know, public opinion in Great Britain was anything but unanimous at the time on the subject of the occupation, and Cyprus has continued to be a free topic of discussion, and is still regarded with scant favour by some, who persist in considering the island to be a bad bargain for this country. But, while granting that as a naval outpost Cyprus does not yet realise the high expectations entertained in the first flush of possession, it must be added that the disappointment arises from the simple reason that the necessary naval works are not yet in existence, rather than because natural facilities are wanting.

Rather less than five hundred years before the Christian era, Cyprus, then possessed of rich forests, was able to furnish Xerxes the Persian with a hundred and fifty ships for his wars against Greece; and in days gone by not only were Larnaca and Limassol busy harbours, but Famagusta, Salamis, and Paphos were all important havens. The last three are now choked up and useless, and to-day it is a matter of complaint that Cyprus practically has no natural harbours. Larnaca and Limassol, the chief seaport towns, are open roadsteads. Until a few years ago, owing to the shallowness of the water, all steamers were obliged to anchor a long distance from shore, and in rough weather, when a dangerous surf rose, landing was



FAMAGUSTA, CYPRUS.

very difficult. Substantial iron piers have, however, been built at each of these ports, and a much-needed breakwater has lately been constructed at Kyrenia. A far greater work has also been taken in hand by the Government, and that is the construction of a capacious harbour at the ancient Famagusta, the site of which, marked by a few ruins, lies about four miles north of the modern town. In the opinion of those best qualified to judge, the restoration of a harbour at Famagusta will enormously increase the strategic as well as the commercial importance of Cyprus, and should add greatly to its prosperity. The expenses of this important work will be defrayed out of the loan of £314,000 granted to the island by Parliament under the new Colonial Loans Act of 1899. When these improvements are carried out, perhaps, we shall better appreciate the value of the once powerful and flourishing island.

† Now let us take the map, and see how Cyprus stands with regard to neighbouring ports. First of all, it lies within easy reach of the three great continents of the Old World. From Cape St. Andrea, the north-easternmost point of the island, to Latakia, on the mainland of Syria, the distance is only about fifty-two geographical miles, whilst between Cape Kormakiti on the north and Cape Anamur in Cilicia there is only a matter of some thirty-five miles. Then, again, the port of Larnaca, situated on the southern coast, is not more than 258 miles from Port

Saïd and the entrance to the Suez Canal ; in a direct line it is 1117 miles east of Valetta, the busy, fortified harbour in Malta, and about 2097 miles from Gibraltar; and there is no break in the line of communication, whilst Limassol is a little nearer to both. And yet another important political consideration is, that Cyprus, like Malta, is a key to Egypt, where British influence is now supreme. The significance of such a central position is obvious, both for extensive commercial traffic and for less peaceful purposes. To quote Mr. Balfour's words when alluding to possible Eastern troubles, "He would be a rash prophet, and he would be a reckless politician, who would say that Cyprus would not prove to be of great importance."

Leaving the strategical question, let us pass on to the most conspicuous characteristics of the island. The most remarkable natural features of Cyprus are the two high mountain ranges and the great plain of Messaoria which separates them—the long mountain promontory and that great circle of hills enclosing the rich plain. The northern chain, called the Carpas Mountains, extends from Cape St. Andrea at the eastern extremity of the island, almost as far as Cape Kormakiti, twenty miles west of Kyrenia, which gives its name to the mountains towards this western end of the chain. To the south of this range stretches the great Messaoria plain, parts of which were once abundantly watered by the *Pediæus*, now a comparatively insignificant stream. The plain

extends right across the island, from Salamis to Morphou Bay. The southern chain of mountains traverses the greater part of the western and south-western portion of Cyprus, and, following the coast in an easterly direction, terminates in the lofty, isolated peak of Monte Santa Croce, or Stavro Vouni, twelve miles to the west of Larnaca. This southern range is both loftier and more extensive than the northern. Its highest summit is Mount Troödos, which rises 6400 feet above the sea-level. On the south-eastern slopes of Mount Troödos the English troops from Limassol find their summer quarters, and the High Commissioner who administers Cyprus has his summer residence here also. The brigade of Guards, after serving in the Egyptian campaign of 1885, were sent to recruit their strength on these delightful and bracing hills.

The rivers of Cyprus are mostly mountain torrents, flowing only after heavy rains or the melting of snow on the hills, and perfectly dry in the summer. Not one of them is navigable. The two principal rivers, the Pedæus and the Idalia, both of which rise in the southern range, flow through the plain, and enter the sea a few miles to the north of Famagusta. Nor are the lakes of any importance or interest, if we except that of Paralimni (near the ruined fortifications of the old town of Famagusta), which presents this peculiarity, that, although its bed is entirely dried up in the summer months, it yet abounds in fish during

the winter, "a phenomenon which has never been explained, but which certainly cannot be called in question." * Water is the great want in Cyprus. The average rainfall for the last ten years is only 18·15 inches, and until lately much of even this scanty supply was wasted, owing to the absence of any system of water-storage. Here again an active Government is working to lessen the deficiency, and is steadily laying the foundations of agricultural prosperity. An ancient canal has been repaired, which irrigates a considerable tract of country, and further supplies of water have been obtained by sinking wells. But a far larger and proportionally important scheme for storing water for irrigation purposes is now making good progress under the superintendence of an engineering expert lent by the Government of India. The waterworks at Synkrasi have been completed, and yet more considerable works for the irrigation of the Messaoria plain are being rapidly carried out. In former days, when well watered, the fruitful plain of Messaoria was famous for its cereals, but owing to the deficiency of water, the neglect of irrigation works, and decay of wells, its fertility decreased, and as recently as 1887, when the rainfall was less than usual, there was something like a famine in the island. But when the splendid scheme of irrigation works now in course of construction are completed, we may confidently look for

* See "Cyprus," "Chambers' Encyclopædia," vol. iii

a revival of the old fertility. The sum of £60,000 has been authorised to be spent on these excellent projects. This sum is part of the loan to Cyprus of £314,000, sanctioned by the Imperial Parliament.

Allusion has been made to the planting of trees by the Government, and its beneficial result on the climate and healthiness of the island. So important a subject deserves further mention. In the past Cyprus was famous for its beautiful forests, but at the time of the British occupation in 1878 these had well-nigh disappeared, having been ruthlessly felled by the Egyptians. Sir Robert Biddulph, in a lecture given before the Royal Geographical Society in 1889, stated that during the time of the Egyptian occupation of Cyprus (1832-40), vast quantities of timber were cut down and carried to Egypt. "In this way," he says, "the whole country round Larnaca was completely denuded of trees. Previous to that time the low hills to the west of Larnaca were covered with forest. Now but a few dwarfed and scattered specimens remain." The climate, health, and fertility of the island equally suffered in consequence of this disastrous clearing. The Government has now taken the forests under its protection, and every possible care and attention is devoted to their recovery. It is, however, a slow process, and the work consists almost entirely of replantation. Natural re-afforestation is seriously hindered in Cyprus, partly owing to the large number of goats kept by the islanders on the hills, and

which bite off the young shoots directly they come up, and partly because of the destructive forest fires that occur in the hot summer months. But a far greater local scourge to vegetation, the locusts, which in former years destroyed the crops and desolated fields, gardens, orchards, vineyards, and plantations alike, have been well-nigh exterminated as the result of vigorous efforts on the part of the authorities. Those who have once witnessed the ravages made by vast armies of locusts will understand the enormous importance of this success. The plan adopted was simple. Screens, covered at top with strips of American cloth, were placed in front of the advancing hosts. The smooth, shining surface of the cloth proved an effective barrier, and the locusts were brought to a sudden standstill on their march. Then the work of destruction was easy. Pits had been dug at frequent intervals before the screens, and into these the locusts were forced by pressure of the on-coming bands, a narrow zinc lining at the top of each pit preventing them from crawling out. Myriads were got rid of in this way, and now that the numbers are vastly reduced, the system of collecting the scattered locusts and locust eggs is being tried.*

Sir Robert Biddulph, in his valuable paper, lays stress on the paramount importance of agriculture as the mainstay of the island's prosperity. "The agricultural prosperity of Cyprus," he says, "is of the

* See Colonial Office List (1900).

gravest interest to the Government, for on that prosperity the revenue entirely depends. There are hardly any large properties in Cyprus, and still fewer instances of land worked on the tenant-farmer system. It is emphatically a land of peasant proprietors, with the result that there are no wealthy persons and no beggars. Property is invariably divided among the children, and again subdivided, so that one hears of a man owning the sixteenth part of a hovel that is not worth as many shillings. To such an extent is the subdivision carried out that there are no less than 600,000 registered holdings of real property, *i.e.* more than three for each inhabitant. On each holding there is a small land tax. The chief tax on land is, however, the tithe, which is, under Turkish law, the actual tenth of the produce. It is not quite right to speak of it as a tax; it is really a reserved rent. In Mahometan countries all the land belongs to the State, *i.e.* the Crown. As each country was conquered the Sultan granted the lands, reserving one-tenth of the produce as rent, and the land passes subject to that reservation. Nor can it be said to be an excessive rent."

By far the greater number of the population are now engaged in cultivation of some kind or the other, and the improvement of agriculture is actively encouraged by the Government, both by the introduction of modern implements and machinery and by measures taken to interest the peasantry in improved

methods of cultivation. Harvesting machines, iron oil-presses, and an iron plough of special construction have now found their way into Cyprus, and as all three innovations are proving immense successes, the number is sure to increase.

The principal products of Cyprus are wine and spirits, grain, carobs (locust beans), linseed, aniseed, flax, fruit, vegetables, cheese, silk, cotton, wool, sumac, sesame, vinegar, gypsum, and terra umbra. The silks of Cyprus have been famous from very early times, especially those of Paphos, which are considered to be superior in quality to any produced elsewhere, either in the Mediterranean or in Asia Minor. Cyprus, however, has moved slowly, and the methods employed in the silk industry, like every other industrial process in the island, are of the most primitive character. Both wool and silk (in the cocoons) are exported, but a good deal is spun and woven in the island ; and it is pleasant to read in the latest official report on Cyprus that "the manufacture of silks is improving, and the industry may be made of great value to the island." The cotton grown in the island is also good, both in colour and texture. Sir F. W. Haynes Smith, in his interesting Report on Cyprus (1899), calls attention to the great need for introducing improved and modern methods. "The export trade," he says, "languishes because the process of manufacture in the island is very crude," and he illustrates his point by giving a description of the

peasant as a wine-maker, wine being one of the most considerable products of the country. He says, "The grapes grown in the vineyards are exceedingly fine, and wine of a high class might be produced if sufficient capital could be attracted to establish central factories worked with skilled experts. At present there are about 11,000 peasants, each of whom manufactures wine, and 700 who manufacture spirits. Each peasant makes his own wine in his earthenware pots, and each potful is of different quality and is different each year. The peasant takes his wine from these pots and puts it in tarred skins for transport on a mule or donkey to the town, and the merchant mixes these different products into a blend." * Now, however, that good roads have been made through the vineyard districts and between all the important places—a work undertaken by the Government some years ago, and still going on—wine can readily be transported in barrels instead of in the old leather bottles, which impart a tarry flavour to it and impair its value. Another important public work, a railway from Nicosia to Famagusta, is contemplated, and when once this becomes an accomplished fact, and the era of the railway dawns for Cyprus, there will be a new page of development in its industrial history.

The whole of the cultivable land in the island amounts to about one and a half million acres, but

* Sir F. W. Haynes Smith, Report on Cyprus (1899).

not half of this is actually cropped in any one year. The area cropped with cereals has, however, enormously extended during the British occupation. In 1899 there were nearly 143,000 acres under wheat, as against 40,000 in 1878, and the area under barley had increased from 60,000 to 100,000 acres in the same period; although, with the solitary exception of the improved plough already mentioned, "the methods of agriculture are very much the same as they were in the time of the Pharaohs."

The copper-mines, for which Cyprus was once famous, are no longer of consequence. In recent times, excepting for a concession to mine copper in 1886, which after a short trial was abandoned, they have remained unworked. A company is, however, engaged at present in prospecting for copper at Lymni, in the extreme west of the island. Large quantities of gypsum, or plaster of Paris, are exported from the Carpas peninsula, and the raw material is then manufactured by machinery at either Larnaca or Limassol, and exported chiefly to Alexandria. The production of salt, which under the Ottoman rule provided a considerable source of revenue, is now only sufficient for local consumption, owing to the prohibitive duties imposed by neighbouring ports.

The re-opening of direct communication with Egypt has stimulated the export trade in the surplus live stock, and cattle, horses, mules, and donkeys are shipped to Egypt, whilst efforts are being made to

improve the breed of the animals in the island. In 1898 a new Tariff Law was passed, which has considerably lightened the old burden of taxation, a heavy burden because of the large sum to be paid to the Porte. "The custom duties have been re-arranged, the tithes on olives, olive oil, and cotton seed are abolished, and specific export duties have been substituted for tithes with regard to a number of articles, and thus the policy of relieving the peasantry by lightening the taxes on minor industries has been further carried out." *

Cyprus has yet another resource in its sponge-beds. There is an extensive sponge-fishery on the coast, the value of which is broadly estimated at from £20,000 to £30,000 a year. The sponge-fishery, however, is practically undeveloped, and the export for 1899 was less than in the previous year. The Cypriotes themselves do not engage in the fishing, which is principally in the hands of boatmen from the Greek islands, although by a law passed in 1890, but which has not been put into practice, the High Commissioner is empowered to grant exclusive privileges for the rights of the sponge-beds in the territorial waters of Cyprus.

The island is divided into six districts, namely, Nicosia, Famagusta, Larnaca, Limassol, Paphos, and Kyrenia. The Government is represented by a Commissioner in each. The population in 1891,

* See Colonial Office List (1899).

excluding the military, numbered 209,286, showing an increase of 23,113 during the decade. The Moslems form about twenty-three per cent. of the population, the remainder of the native population belong to the Orthodox Greek Church.

The ancient history of Cyprus is singularly eventful. Its early annals are a gorgeous record of kingly conquerors following in turn, and each attended by all the glitter and magnificence of successful war. For, like Gibraltar and Malta, Cyprus has known many masters, and, since it is believed to be the Chittim of the Mosaic record, it appears yet earlier on the page of history ; but only the barest outlines of its bygone glories can be given here. The concurrent testimony of history shows that the gaze of the Imperial nations of antiquity was drawn to the magnetic shores of the Great Sea with the same acute interest as drew Portugal and Spain in the Middle Ages to make their grand move seawards, and in the sixteenth century made "Westward ho!" a watchword for English mariners. The glamour of the Mediterranean hung over the older trading nations even as the spell of the New World entranced men's imaginations in Tudor times and later. At successive stages in the history of the human race, Phœnicians, Egyptians, Persians, Assyrians, Greeks, Romans, Saracens, Templars, Genoese, Venetians, and Turks struggled with fierce intensity for the possession of colonies in the Mediterranean. Each nation in its

turn colonised Cyprus, and then sooner or later bowed to its inevitable renunciation. In those far-off times Cyprus furnished much wealth. The soil was fertile ; large crops of grain were produced ; beautiful and abundant forests afforded a plentiful supply of timber for shipbuilding. Its luscious fruits were famous, and the groves of pomegranate were considered to be the special gift of Venus, the presiding goddess.

“ Idalian Aphrodite, beautiful,
Fresh as the foam, new bathed in Paphian wells.”

The most valuable products were wine and valuable metals. The ancients found copper, silver, and precious stones. The rich copper-mines at Tamassus yielded great profits ; the word “copper,” indeed (*æscyprium*), is derived from the name of the island.

The Phœnician colonists, who brought with them the worship of Ashtaroth, or Astarte, settled in very early times. They were forced to bow before one of Egypt's mightiest Pharaohs, Thothmes III., who, after winning great victories in Western Asia, added yet further to his conquests by sending a large fleet and capturing the prosperous island. Belus, King of Tyre, next conquered Cyprus, but nothing is known of the event beyond the bare record of the razing of the towns by the victor. In 707 B.C. Sargon, King of Assyria, succeeded in taking the island, and it continued under the Assyrians' control until its second invasion and conquest by Egypt during the long and

prosperous reign of Amasis. Mention is made by Herodotus of the ravaging of the whole island by Amasis, who laid the Cypriotes under a heavy tribute. In 528 B.C. Psammetichus III., the son of Amasis, lost his kingdom to Cambyses, King of Persia, who invaded Cyprus in 525 B.C., compelled its submission, and annexed the island to Persia. Twenty-five years later Cyprus revolted against its conquerors, but was compelled to return to its allegiance in the following year, 499 B.C. Cyprus was able to contribute one hundred and fifty ships to aid Xerxes when he crossed the Hellespont to invade Greece in 480 B.C. After his crushing defeat in the great historic sea-fight at Salamis (near Athens), the Athenians followed up their victory by ravaging large districts in Cyprus. Some years later the Cypriotes revolted and defeated the Persian fleet near Salamis (in Cyprus), in 449 B.C., but their success was only temporary, and they were promptly subdued by Darius. In 387 B.C. the Greeks were its masters, and under the kings of Salamis, Evagoras and Nicocles, Cyprus enjoyed a partial independence. The Greeks named the island *Kypros*, and substituted the worship of Aphrodite—the beautiful Paphian Venus, who was regarded as the special divinity of the island. After the decisive battle of Issus (333 B.C.), when the power of Darius was broken, Cyprus fell with his other possessions into the hands of Alexander the Great, and became a part of the Macedonian Empire. At

the Macedonian conqueror's death, in 323 B.C., and the break-up of his empire, the Egyptian Ptolemy took over the dominion of Cyprus from Demetrius in 295 B.C. In the year 58 B.C. Cyprus again changed rulers, and became a Roman province. The Romans, like the Phœnicians, worked its copper-mines, and Cato the Younger and Cicero became its administrators. In 45 A.D. Cyprus was visited by St. Paul and Barnabas, and its people were amongst the first Gentiles who embraced Christianity.

When eventually the great Roman Empire came to be divided, Cyprus, as was natural, passed to the Eastern Empire, and for more than seven centuries it continued to be governed by the lieutenants of the Byzantine emperors. Twice during this period the Saracens successfully invaded the island, and captured it—under Othman in 646 A.D., and again in 802 A.D. under another formidable Saracen leader, Haroun al Raschid. In each case, however, the Moslem sway was of brief duration. In 1184 Isaac Comnenus, a nephew of the Byzantine emperor, declared himself King of Cyprus. Cyprus was still subject to the Eastern Empire in 1191, when Richard of the Lion-heart, then on his way to the Crusades, indignant at the ill treatment experienced by his sailors at the hands of Isaac Comnenus, punished the offender by taking Limassol, and then occupying the island. On May 12th, 1191, the English King was married at Limassol to Berengaria of Navarre. On reaching

Palestine, Richard sold Cyprus to the Knights Templars for 100,000 besants d'or (£320,000). But as the Knights were unable to govern it, the King presented it to an old crusading comrade, Guy de Lusignan, the ex-king of Jerusalem, who had helped in its capture, and he took over the obligations of the Templars, together with the sovereignty of the island. The Genoese Republic held the strong fortress and port of Famagusta from 1373 to 1464, when it was retaken by James II., the Lusignan king. The sovereignty of the island remained in the Lusignan family until 1489, when Guy's descendant, Queen Catarina de Cornaro, a Venetian by birth, having survived both husband and son, yielded the government to the Republic of Venice. Under the Venetians Cyprus attained its utmost splendour and wealth. The Republic ruled Cyprus until the terrible invasion of the Ottoman Turks under Selim II., in 1570-71. After long sieges, desperately maintained, but ending at last in frightful massacres both at Famagusta and Nicosia, the triumphant Turks captured the Venetian garrisons, took possession of the country, and became its masters for three hundred years.

Referring to this conquest of Cyprus by the Turks, Sir R. Biddulph, speaking of Nicosia, the capital, says—

“The point where the Turks attacked was marked for future ages by the erection of a mosque on the beach. There it stands to this day, being called ‘The Standard-bearer’s Mosque.’ It marks the spot where

the leader of the Turkish storming party planted the flag of the Crescent on the very summit of the breach, and there he fell. The Moslems, however, pressed forward, and drove the Venetians backward into the town. The defence of the latter must have been most gallant, as they fell back on the Governor's palace. The track of the conquerors may be traced to this day by the tombs of their leaders who fell during their advance, and, according to the Turkish custom, were subsequently buried where they fell. The standard-bearer was buried on the summit of the breach where the mosque now stands. All the tombs are similarly cared for, and it strikes me as a fine soldierly trait of the Turkish character thus to hand down in perpetual remembrance the fame of the soldiers who achieved the Ottoman conquests by the silent witness of their tombs on the spots where they fell. At the time of the British occupation everything seemed to have been left untouched since the arrival of the Turks. On the ramparts there were Venetian guns—large bronze pieces, each profusely ornamented and engraved with the name of the founder and the badge of the Republic ; the carriages quite unserviceable from the effects of time ; the shot, round and bar, neatly piled up by the side of each gun ; the magazines filled with powder, and over the door of the principal one the armoured headpiece of a horse, such as you may see in the Tower of London—the last relic in Cyprus of the Venetian knights."

For a few years the Ottoman rule in Cyprus was interrupted. The Pasha of Egypt, who was then at war with the Porte, took the island in 1832, and held it until the Turks regained possession in 1840. From this time the Sultans were masters of Cyprus, and continued to occupy it until the celebrated Anglo-Turkish Convention of June 4th, 1878, by which it came into British occupation as a "place of arms." This Convention, signed after the Russo-Turkish war and during Lord Beaconsfield's ministry, between the representatives of the Queen-Empress of Great Britain and India and the Sultan of Turkey, gave us the control of Cyprus, as already stated, without a shot being fired.

By the terms of this treaty the Island of Cyprus is to be occupied by Great Britain until Batoum, Kars, and Erzeroum are restored to the Porte by Russia. Great Britain undertook, in case of aggression on the Turkish dominions in Asia, to assist in their defence on the condition that Turkey should carry into execution certain reforms pressed on her by the European Governments; and as a guarantee of good faith, Turkey, "in order to enable England to make necessary provisions for executing her engagements," agreed "to assign the Island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England," subject to an annual payment to the Porte of £92,800.

In fulfilment of the Anglo-Turkish Convention of June 4th, 1878, the British occupied Cyprus in July of that same year, and in August a supplementary

agreement was signed, "giving to Her Britannic Majesty * for the term of the occupation full powers for making laws and conventions for the government of the island in Her Majesty's name, and for the regulation of its commercial and consular relations and affairs, free from the Porte's control." In September an Order in Council was issued for the regulation of the government of Cyprus. The administration was placed in the hands of Sir Garnet, afterwards Lord Wolseley, who was appointed Lord High Commissioner, and invested with the powers usually conferred upon a Colonial Governor. The Turkish Government has never carried out the reforms promised under the terms of the Convention, consequently Great Britain may consider herself relieved of any obligation to defend Turkish Asiatic territory, unless her own interests render interference desirable. If, however, it should be found advisable at some future period either to protect Asiatic Turkey, or to prevent the invasion by land of Egypt, or of India through Asia Minor or Palestine, the possession of Cyprus would be of great service to Britain, giving her a secure military and naval base near the scene of operations, or on the flank of a hostile advancing army, whose communications would thus be seriously threatened.

Sir Garnet Wolseley was succeeded in the government of Cyprus by Sir Robert Biddulph in 1879. In

* Queen Victoria.

that year the British authorities purchased all the Government lands in the island, and in 1880 the administration was transferred from the Foreign to the Colonial Office. In 1882 a new constitution was granted to Cyprus by Lord Kimberley's Government, and the elective Legislative Council was opened by Sir Robert Biddulph in 1883. The Council is under the Presidency of the High Commissioner, and consists of eighteen members, six of whom are non-elective, being official, and twelve elected members. Three out of the twelve are chosen by Mohammedan, and the remaining nine are chosen by non-Mohammedan inhabitants. Since its institution successive improvements of a public character have greatly tended to promote the better government of the island and the well-being of its people. The admirable judicial system introduced is popular, and the courts presided over by the British barrister-judges are greatly appreciated by the Cypriotes, who as a people are orderly and amenable to rule. The Mohammedan religious tribunals are maintained under the terms of the Convention. "British rule," to quote the *Times* newspaper, "spread almost as swiftly as oil spreads on the surface of water." The old corruption and bribery has been abolished. Justice is free to all. Taxation has been lightened. Schools are at work. Trade has largely increased, and the statistics quoted at the end of this chapter show that the revenue of the country is increasing to a remarkable extent under British rule.

Financially, our occupation of Cyprus has been regarded by some people at home as a bad bargain, but after reading the High Commissioner's encouraging Report there can be no doubt as to the blessings conferred on the Cypriotes themselves by British rule. The testimony of an independent observer, whose opinion has lately been published in America, is quoted by Sir F. W. Haynes Smith, who says, "The island of Cyprus is just now an object-lesson of the kind of government England can give. It has been for twenty years an English possession. An American, Dr. George Post, of the College at Beirut, who knew Cyprus well under Turkish rule, has recently been writing in enthusiastic terms of the astounding transformation wrought by about a hundred English officials, who have simply revolutionised the island for the better. Taxation has been lightened, and made a fixed and rational system instead of a means of rapacious extortion; agriculture has been improved, and trading put on a secure basis, while a complete system of public schools is in operation. Dr. Post saw on all sides contentment and prosperity where thirty years ago only terror and wretchedness were visible."

Here our brief survey of Great Britain in Europe must end. Vol. II. of the series will give the story of Great Britain in Asia. Much that is interesting, much that is of historic importance has been

omitted, but few, if any, can read what has been written without reaching the conclusion that, whatever the shortcomings of Britons may be, they can show a splendid record of moral, intellectual, and material progress.

We have as yet travelled but a short distance round the Empire, as this volume has dealt exclusively with the history of Great Britain in Europe.

Of all the five great divisions of the world, Europe possesses but the smallest share, as regards area, of the territories which owe allegiance to King Edward VII., although in other respects no doubt they must hold a very high position.

In future volumes we shall hope to follow the fortunes of Great Britain outside Europe, beginning with our ancient and vast Asiatic Dependencies, and visiting in succession the other quarters of the globe wherever the Union Jack may fly.

Finally, we shall touch on the lost possessions of Great Britain, possessions which at one time formed part of the Empire, but which for one cause or another are no longer British.

We believe, although the history of the Empire contains many incidents which we should wish had never occurred, and we would like to forget, that on the whole the British race has not been unworthy of its high destiny.

In no spirit of arrogance, but conscious of many shortcomings in the past, the sons of the Empire, in

reading and studying the story of the expansion of Great Britain, may take hope, believing that the British Empire is destined to fill an even higher and nobler part in the future history of the world than it has in the past, and in years to come to be the means of bringing further untold blessings to millions of the human race.

. . . " In our halls is hung
Armoury of the invincible knights of old :
We must be free or die ; who speak the tongue
That Shakespeare spoke ; the faith and morals hold
Which Milton held. In everything we are sprung
Of earth's first blood, have titles manifold."

WORDSWORTH.

CYPRUS.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

	£
Revenue in 1887-1888	145,443
„ in 1898-1899	210,284
Expenditure in 1887-1888	113,325
„ in 1897-1898	132,130
Imports from United Kingdom in 1887-1888	78,043
„ „ in 1897-1898	77,394
Exports to United Kingdom in 1887-1888	27,928
„ „ in 1897-1898	49,720
Defence—Small Imperial force, and local military Police force of about 670 men.	

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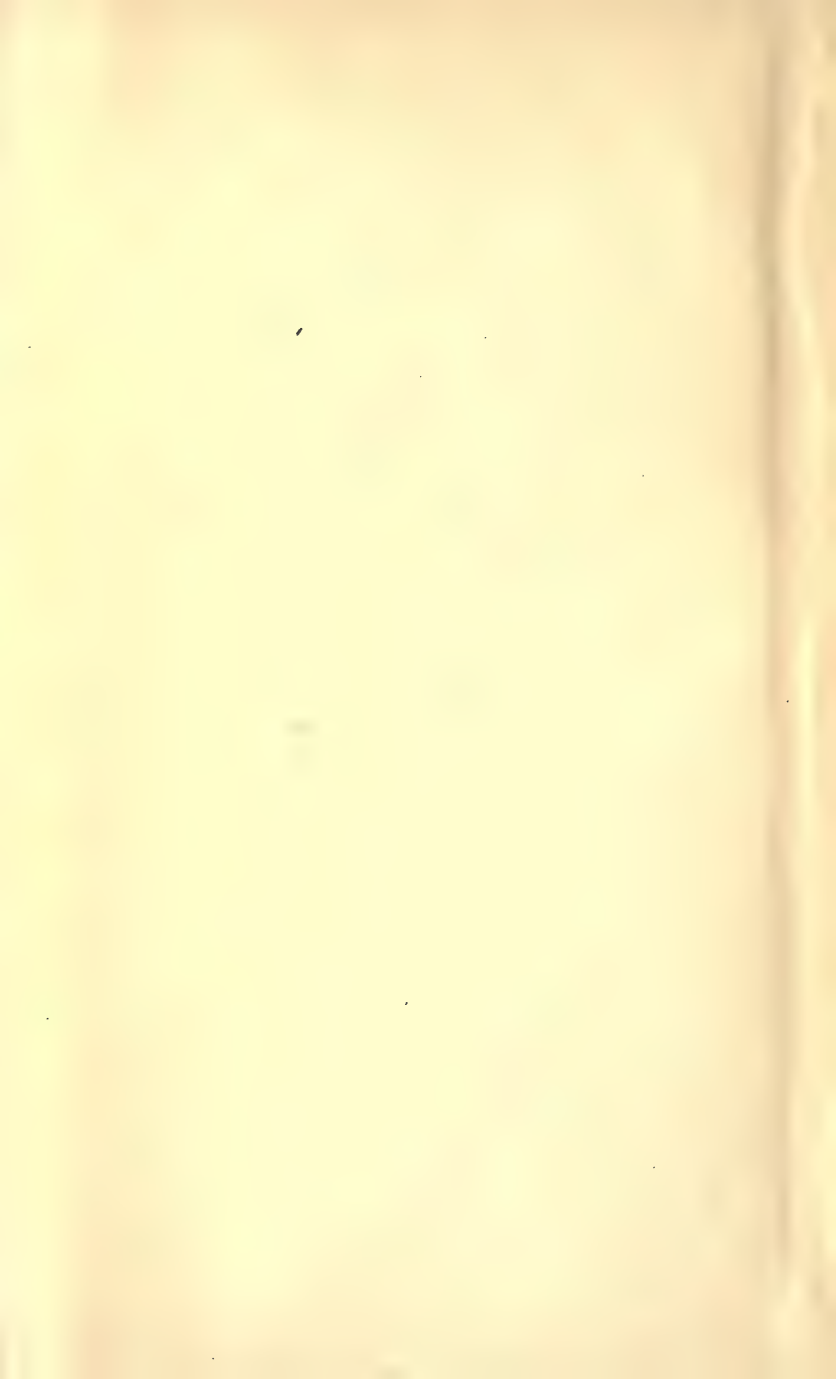
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